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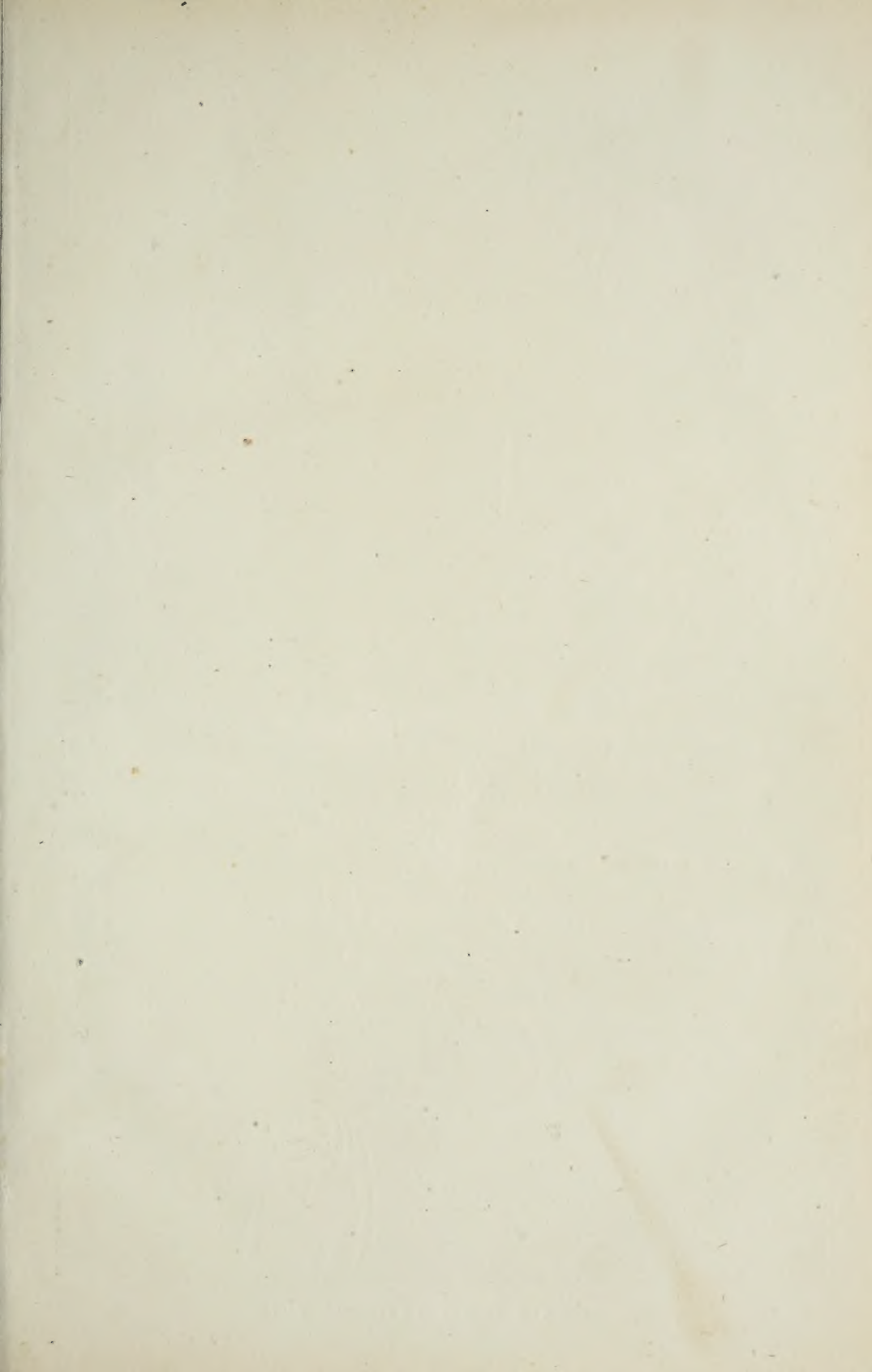
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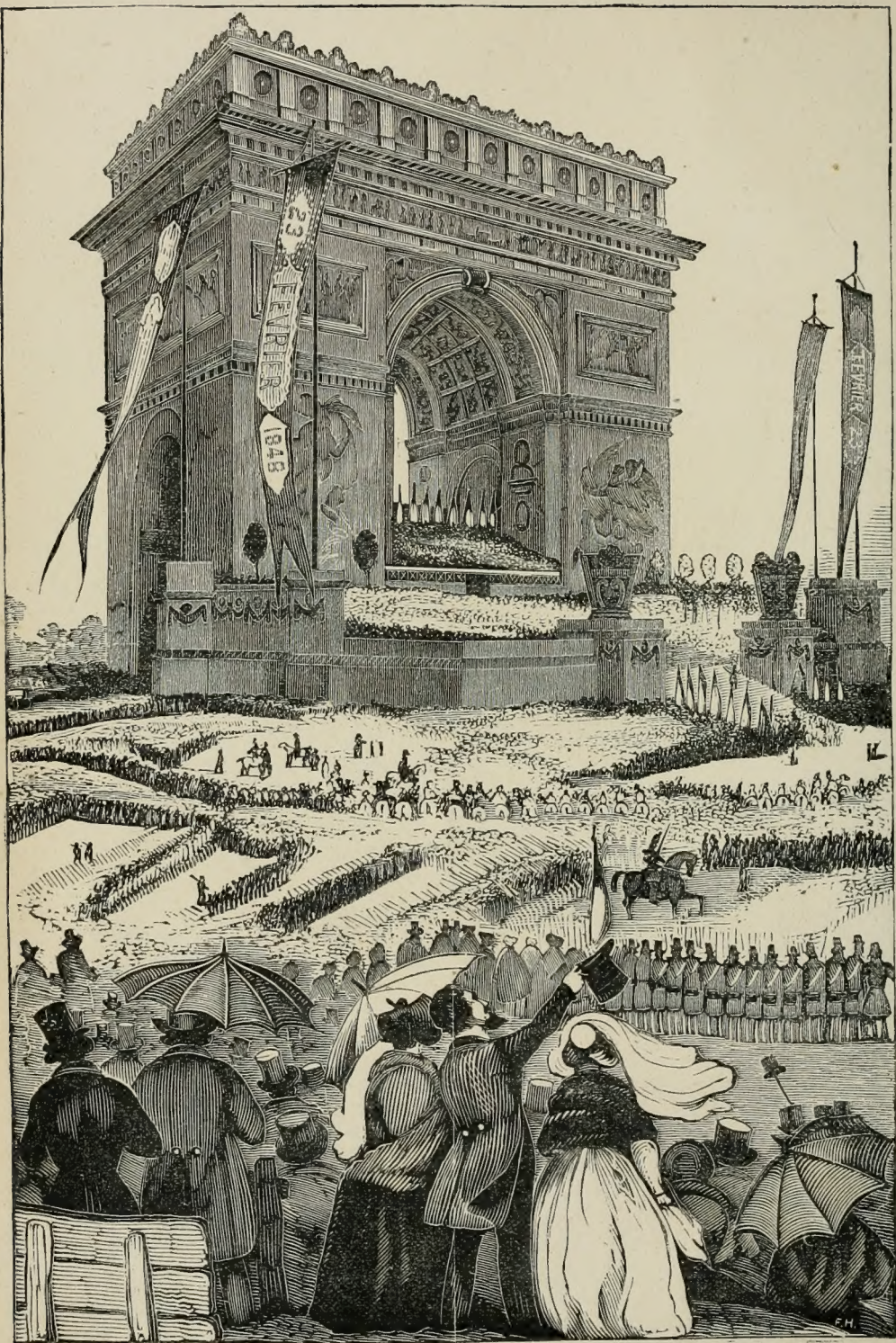






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PRESENTATION OF FLAGS TO THE NATIONAL GUARDS.

PARLEY'S PANORAMA

OR

CURIOSITIES

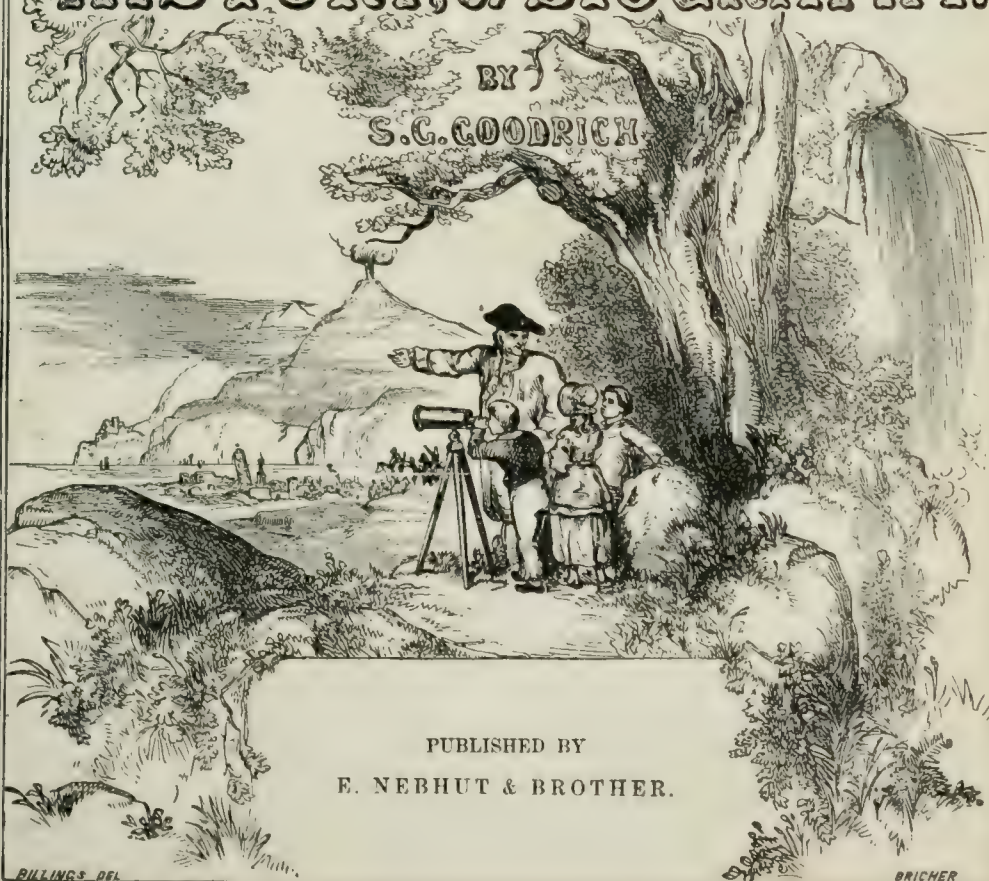
OF

NATURE AND ART.

HISTORY & BIOGRAPHY.

BY

S. C. GOODRICH



PUBLISHED BY

E. NEBHUT & BROTHER.

Parley's Panorama;

OR,

CURIOSITIES

OF

NATURE AND ART,

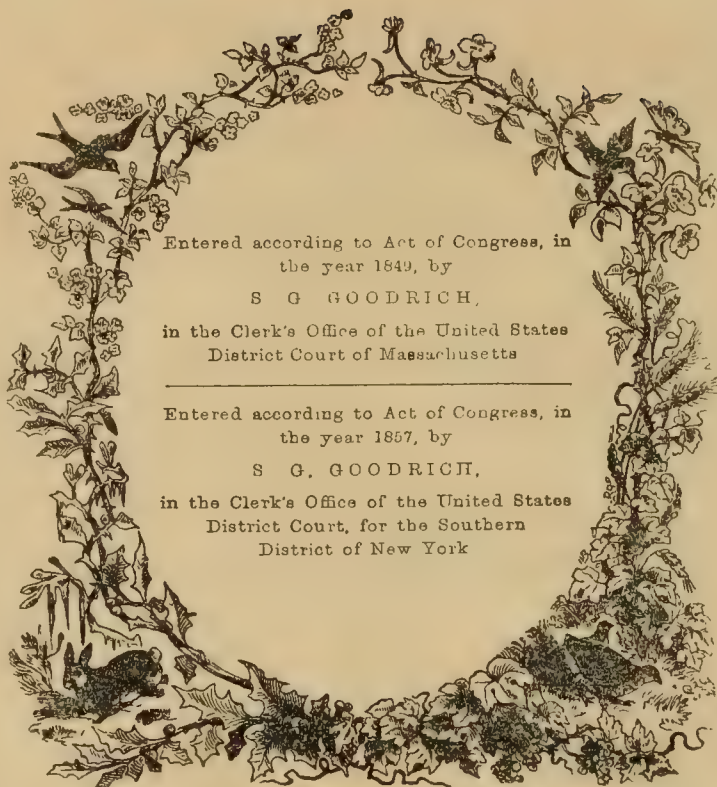
HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

A New Edition, with Improvements to the latest date.

EDITED BY S. G. GOODRICH.

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E. NEBHUT & BROTHERS.
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PARLEY'S PANORAMA;

OR,

CURIOSITIES OF NATURE AND ART, HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

INTRODUCTION.

It has been often said that *truth* is more wonderful than *fiction*. The force of this observation is manifest to those who have a liberal acquaintance with books, or have otherwise stored their minds from the great treasures of human knowledge and experience.

To the ignorant, trifles often appear mysterious and wonderful; while things really amazing are viewed with indifference. To a child, the blaze of a candle is an object of intense admiration. When it appears, it excites delight; when it vanishes, it creates wonder. But the moon, which to the instructed mind suggests ideas of the most lofty and sublime nature, excites in the infant only a transient and vague emo-

tion, to be replaced by images of toys and baubles.

It is thus, in proportion as the mind is cultivated and enlarged, that the wonders of Nature and Art, of History and Biography, become topics of interest, and sources of reflection and enjoyment. The more of truth there is in the mind, the more does truth itself become attractive. The appetite for knowledge knows no satiety; it increases as it is fed; its relish is the keener in proportion as it is indulged.

In this view of the subject, we have collected a variety of remarkable facts, calculated to gratify curiosity, and impart instruction. Our design is to make it a complete circle of curiosities, drawn from the great

store-house of human knowledge, each topic being presented in a manner to convey accurate, vivid and pleasing impressions. The work is intended for the general reader, for families, and especially for the younger members of families. It is intended as a means of counteracting the vicious taste for fiction which has of late come into vogue. It is believed that truth is the proper antidote to this; and that while it may be made as attractive, it is infinitely more instructive and gratifying to the mind.

GEOLOGICAL SECTION OF THE EARTH.



GEOLOGICAL WONDERS.

AFTER mankind had provided for their physical wants, it was natural for them to begin to exercise their minds in matters of speculation. History informs us that, at an early date, there were philosophers who directed their attention to the phenomena of nature—the succession of day and night—the clouds, the seasons, and the heavenly bodies.

In due time the question of the origin of the earth arose, and numberless theories

were proposed as a solution. For many centuries learned men involved themselves in the mists of mere speculation, and what was at first mysterious, became at last marvellous. Within two centuries, a new turn has been given to philosophy, and instead of inventing theories, as the means of ascertaining truth, scholars have looked to facts, and from these have sought to develop the principles of philosophy.

In endeavoring to make out the physical

history of our earth, therefore, they begun to study the structure of its surface; they looked at its mountains, hills, and valleys, they investigated the craters of volcanoes, and the wrecks of earthquakes; they observed the phenomena presented by caves and the deep shafts of mines; they pondered upon the scenes presented along the seashore. Having thus collected a large mass of facts, the principles of geology began to develop themselves. The process was like that of the chemist, who puts into his crucible a mass of chaotic earths, and after boiling and cooling, he discovers, with surprise and admiration, the bright crystals of a new salt—destined to become the mightiest engine of power known to man—the element of gunpowder itself. And thus, from scattered observations, brought at last together and properly digested, the modern science of geology, so certain, yet so startling, in its revelations, is established.

We do not propose here to give even an outline of this wonderful science. Our present object is to present a very general idea of the structure and constitution of the globe, which Providence has assigned to us as our dwelling-place.

That the earth is a vast globe or ball, is proved beyond doubt. That its surface is distributed into mountains and valleys, plains and deserts, seas and oceans, everybody knows. The exterior part of the globe, called the *crust*, is the only portion which is within the scope of human investigation. The whole diameter of the earth is 8000 miles, while the deepest artificial perforations have reached but a few hundred feet. If we compare the deepest shaft sunk by man—the Artesian well at Grenelle, near Paris—with the bulk of the earth, it is relatively hardly more than a scratch through the enamel of an artificial globe.

Still, so industrious have been the labors of geologists, that the general structure of the rocks and soils comprising the crust of the earth is well known, and the materials, so multifarious and confused to the eye of a common observer, are reduced to regular scientific classification. Going even beyond the limits of actual observation, scientific men have been able, from the great mass of evidence now before them, to make out a very plausible and probable theory as to the constitution of the interior of the earth.

It is evident that the entire surface of the globe has been, in ages past, the theatre of many revolutions. It is certain that, in former ages, the distribution of seas and continents has been different from as present

exists: it is certain that mountains, now lifting their tops to the clouds, have been the beds of oceans; it is certain that land, now at the bottom of the sea, has been, in former times, cast into mountains. So extensive have been these changes, as to alter the climates; for we find in Siberia and all along the north of Europe, the bones of animals, and the vestiges of trees and plants, which we know can only exist in hot countries; facts which prove that the climate of the tropics must once have prevailed in these regions, now given up to the perpetual dominion of winter.

Now we know that Providence, in its mighty works, employs means. What, then, are the means by which the face of the earth has thus been convulsed and changed? The answer seems easy; for we see that volcanic fires, in our own day, are frequently turning and overturning whole tracts of territory, sometimes leagues in length and breadth. From this fact, and many others tending to the same point, the opinion is now pretty well established that the entire central mass of the earth is in a state of incandescence. The cut at the head of this article gives a representation of this theory. It presents the crust of the earth, thrown into irregular strata of rocks and soils, with the superincumbent oceans and seas; and it shows the melted matter, occupying the centre of the globe. The relative thickness of the crust of the earth is of course exaggerated in this drawing, for the purpose of showing its composition more clearly.

The conclusions to which geology thus brings us are indeed startling. The surface of the globe is a vast sepulchre, entombing the remains of generations and races of animals and plants long since perished and forgotten: a large portion of the very surfaces of mountains, rocks and soils, are but the accumulated bones of extinct races of animals, the vestiges of trees and plants, whose species are looked for in vain in the present vegetable kingdom.

And beside this, these materials seem, in all quarters of the globe, to have been subjected to the heat of volcanic fires. It is hardly possible to take a walk into the fields, without discovering rocks which have evidently been melted as in some mighty crucible.

All around Boston the rocks present incontestible evidence of fusion, by which heaps of pebbles have been made into what is called *pudding stone*—the whole scenery thus bringing to the mind of every observer the familiar process of boiling in a pot.

We have reason, then, to believe that the land upon which we dwell, and which seems to us so firm, is in truth but the shell of a globe of fire, cooled by exposure to the atmosphere. Volcanoes are the pipes by which the melted matter, in the form of lava, is occasionally poured out. This idea is indeed startling; a thousand millions of human beings, and countless numbers of other living things, occupying a globe of fire, from which their feet are only separated by a crust, liable at any moment to be rent asunder—is one of those amazing facts, which calls upon man to reflect at the same time upon the insignificance of man and the

might, majesty, and dominion of the Creator. It should be remarked, also, that stupendous as are the works of God—fearful, terrific, awful as they might seem, if we could imagine him indifferent to the happiness of his creatures—they are all marked with beneficent design. Even the central fires of the earth, supposing our theory to be established, may be believed to be necessary to maintain a due degree of heat, for the preservation of life; and what might seem a cause of dread, be in reality the means by which the sea is prevented from being a rock of ice and the whole surface of our planet from becoming a scene of universal winter, desolation, and death!



THE BANKS OF THE NILE.

THERE is no portion of the globe more calculated to carry the mind backward into the depths of past history, than the country along the river Nile. Here, in ages so remote as to be veiled in mist, we can see, by the faint light of history, the shadows and ghosts of kings and emperors, bearing the suggestive and portentous names of Isis, Horos, Osiris, Menes, Bochos, Biphis, and Sesostris. If we open our eyes and look

around, we discover the pyramids—works of unknown hands, yet such as befit races of monarchs, half gods and half men; we see the wrecks of cities, so grand, even in ruins, as to recall the age of giants; we meet with obelisks, statues, monuments, of such vast proportions as to realize the mythological dreams of the Cyclops and the Titans. And over all, are those mysterious writings—pictures—hieroglyphics—which so long

defied scrutiny, but which are now beginning to speak and reveal the buried secrets of centuries.

But of all the wonders of Egypt, the sepulchral chambers are the most astonishing. There are several of these, some having the walls covered with sacred paintings, and others with objects and scenes taken from the manners, customs and history of the country. Madden, in his travels, thus describes his entrance into one of these mysterious chambers.

"Considerably below the surface of the adjoining buildings, the guide pointed out to me a chink in an old wall, which he told me I should creep through on my hands and feet; the aperture was not two feet and a half high, and scarcely three feet and a half broad. My companion had the courage to enter first, thrusting in a lamp before him. I followed, and after me the son of the old man crept also. The passage was so narrow that my mouth and nose were sometimes buried in the dust, and I was nearly suffocated. After proceeding about ten yards, in utter darkness, the heat became excessive, breathing was laborious, the perspiration poured down my face, and I would have given the world to have got out; but my companion, whose person I could not distinguish, though his voice was audible, called out to me to crawl a few feet further, and that I should find plenty of space. I joined him at length, and had the inexpressible satisfaction of standing once more on my feet. We found ourselves in a splendid apartment, of great magnitude, adorned with sacred paintings and hieroglyphics."

An English poet, who visited the sepulchral chambers of Egypt, thus describes the paintings.

"————— in the range
Of these deep caverned sepulchres are found,
The wildest images — unheard of, strange,
Striking, uncouth, odd, picturesque, profound —
That ever puzzled antiquarian's brain.
Prisoners of different nations, bound and slain,
Genii with heads of birds, hawks, ibis, drakes,
Of lions, foxes, cats, fish, frog, and snakes,
Bulls, rams, and monkeys, hippopotami,
With knife in paw, suspended from the sky; —
Vast scarabei, globes by hands upheld,
From chaos springing, mid an endless field
Of forms grotesque, the sphynx, the crocodile,
And other reptiles, from the slime of Nile."

It would seem that similar representations of sacred objects are alluded to in the Bible, and we may infer that they were objects of idolatrous worship among the Egyptians. From these it is probable the Israelites derived the practice, rebuked in the book of Ezekiel, ch. viii. 7—12, where we read as follows —

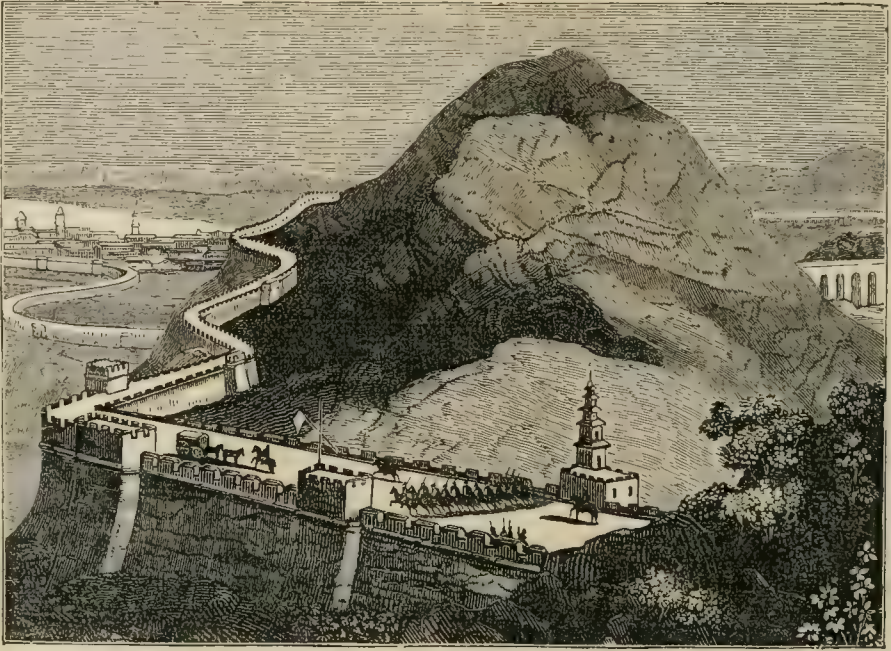
"And he brought me to the door of the court, and when I looked, behold a hole in the wall. Then said he unto me, Son of man, dig now in the wall; and when I had digged in the wall, behold a door. And he said unto me, Go in, and behold the wicked abominations that they do here. So I went in and saw; and behold every form of creeping things, and abominable beasts, and all the idols of the house of Israel, portrayed upon the wall round about. And there stood before them seventy men of the ancients of the house of Israel, and in the midst of them stood Jaazaniah the son of Shaphan, with every man his censor in his hand; and a thick cloud of incense went up. Then said he unto me, Son of man, hast thou seen what the ancients of the house of Israel do in the dark, every man in the chambers of his imagery? for they say, The Lord seeth us not; the Lord hath forsaken the earth."

Beside these objects which we have mentioned, travellers tell us of the ruins of cities along the borders of the Nile, which strike the beholder with amazement, on account of their magnitude. The ruins of a single temple, called Karnac, in Upper Egypt, are three miles in circuit. They are described by a traveller, as follows:

"Most points of view present only the image of a general overthrow, rendering it difficult to distinguish Karnac as a series of regular edifices. Across these vast ruins, appear only fragments of architecture; trunks of broken columns; mutilated colossal statues; obelisks — some fallen and some majestically erect; immense halls, whose roofs are supported by parts of columns, portals and pillars, surpassing in magnitude all similar structures. From the west, this chaos assumes an orderly appearance; and the almost endless series of portals, gates, and halls, appear ranged in regular succession, and harmonizing with each other. When the plan is thoroughly understood, its regularity appears wonderful; and the highest admiration is excited by the arrangement and symmetry of all the parts of this vast edifice."

These ruins are on the eastern side of the Nile, and near by are those of the temple of Luxor, which, though hardly equal to Karnac in magnitude, even surpass it in beauty of design and execution.

On the western side of the Nile, and at no great distance, are the ruins of the ancient city of Thebes, said to have had a hundred gates, in its days of prosperity — some thousands of years ago.



THE CHINESE WALL.

This work may be considered as one of the greatest of human constructions. It extends 1500 miles, and is said to have been built in five years, several millions of persons being employed upon it. It was built 205 years before Christ, under the Emperor Chi-hoang-ti, who is famous for having had all the Chinese books burned, and for founding the dynasty of Tsin.

The object of this wall was to keep off the Tartans, who were very troublesome to the Chinese, making frequent inroads upon them, for the purpose of plunder. In order to build the wall, a conscription was made, and every third laboring man, in the empire, was called upon and obliged to work, having no other pay than his food.

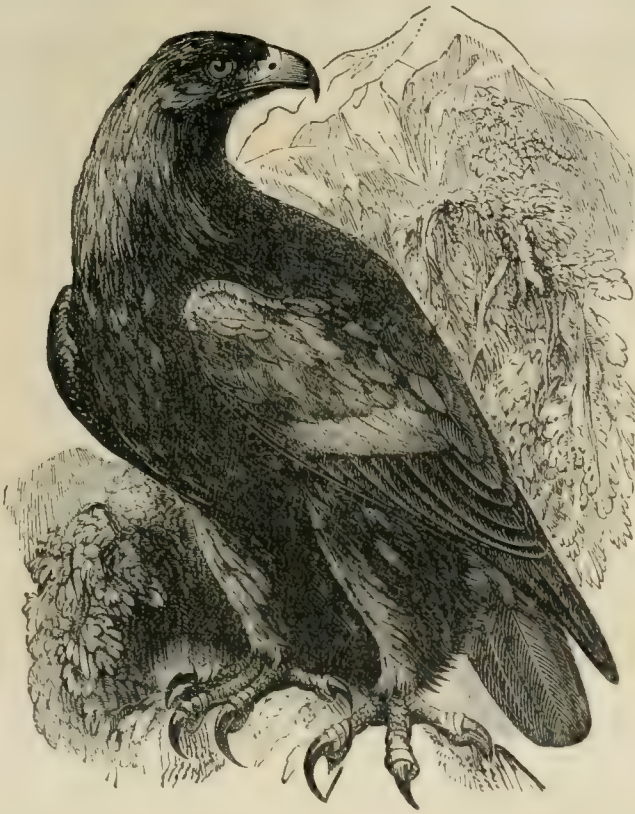
This wall is carried over mountains and across valleys and rivers. Where required, it rests upon arches. At distances of about a hundred yards, it has high fortified towers, for defence; it has also gates, around which there are, usually, villages. In its strongest parts, and for hundreds of miles in extent, this wall is so thick as to allow six men on horseback to ride upon it. The structure consists of two parallel walls of solid masonry, filled in between with earth; the top is paved with stone.

In many places this wall was less lofty and of inferior thickness; and for many years

it has in parts so fallen into decay as to be easily passed. The Tartan districts on the north of China having been long incorporated into that empire, it has been unnecessary to keep up this formidable bulwark.

Though this work displays no great mechanical skill, yet the vastness of the design and the great amount of labor required for its completion, give us a high idea of the patience and perseverance of the Chinese nation. They have other works, which serve to strengthen this view of their character. And it is proper to observe that these are, generally, of a useful nature. Egypt reared mighty monuments, but they were mere displays of vain and superstitious pomp; while the public works of China are designed to benefit the country.

Next to the Great Wall, which we have just described, the Grand Canal deserves to be mentioned. This furnishes an uninterrupted water communication from Pekin to the Yang-tse-kiang—a distance of 500 miles. By its connection with rivers, this canal affords an inland navigation of 1000 miles, with only a short interruption. The labor and ingenuity displayed in this work are the greater, as the Chinese are unacquainted with locks and other means by which a stationary supply of water may be insured.



THE EAGLE.

THERE are several species of the eagle, but all bearing a strong family likeness. Taken as a whole, we may call them the lions, tigers, and leopards of the feathered race. They live by slaughter; they carry on a war of ruthless extermination, and surround their lonely nests with the relics of many a bloody feast. Their port is free and noble, their eyes piercing, their body firm and compact, their flight rapid and impetuous, their beak and talons are hooked, sharp, and formidable. They live alone, or in pairs; some on the cliffs of the seashore, some on the highest mountains, some among the secluded recesses of the woods, and some on wide heaths and moors. All are busy and active in the destruction of life. Some, perched on a rocky height, or on the topmost branches of a tree, mark their prey at a distance, and, rapid as an arrow, launch upon the fated quarry; some skim over fields and woods, and pounce suddenly and silently upon the unsuspecting victim; some soar aloft and sweep down like a thunderbolt upon their prey while in the air; some glide upon it obliquely, and thus skim it from

the surface of the earth. All, however, are not equal in courage; some attack birds and quadrupeds larger than themselves, and capable of making resistance; others content themselves with feeble animals, lizards, snakes, frogs, mice, and the like. The females exceed the males in size and power.

Many are the allusions in the Scriptures to the eagle and the hawk, having an express reference to their ferocity, power, and rapidity of flight; one of the most beautiful is in Job xxxix. 26: "Doth the hawk fly by thy wisdom, and stretch her wings toward the south? Doth the eagle mount up at thy command, and make her nest on high? She dwelleth and abideth on the rock, upon the crag of the rock, and the strong place. From thence she seeketh the prey, and her eyes behold afar off. Her young ones also suck up blood: and where the slain are, there is she."

The *personal appearance* of the eagle is striking. The eye is large and fiery, and meets with unquenched lustre and undimmed gaze the blaze of the meridian sun; the sight is piercing and clear. The flight is

soaring and majestic, the fatal swoop impetuous and irresistible, and the beak and talons are efficient weapons for the work of carnage. Every attitude indicates power and resolution—from the calm, statue-like posture of repose, the eye alone betraying the fire within, to the gladiator-like exhibition, when, sternly grasping the prostrate victim, the bloody feast commences.

The white-headed eagle is not one of the largest species, but it is common in the U. States, and is emblazoned on our national standard. The food of this greedy bird consists of fish, pigs, lambs, fawns, waterfowl, and putrid carcasses. Wilson says, "We have seen the Bald Eagle," its common name in America, "while seated on the dead carcass of a horse, keep a whole flock of vultures at a respectful distance, until he had fully sated his own appetite;" and he also mentions an instance in which flocks of vultures, feeding on some thousands of squirrels, drowned in attempting to pass the Ohio, during one of their migrations, were all dispersed by a Bald Eagle, who drove them from the feast, of which he kept sole possession for several successive days.

"To give you some idea," says Audubon, "of the nature of this bird, permit me to place you on the Mississippi, on which you may float gently along, while approaching winter brings millions of waterfowl, on whistling wings, from the countries of the north, to seek a milder climate in which to sojourn for a season. The eagle is seen perched in an erect attitude on the highest summit of the tallest tree, by the margin of the broad stream. His glistening but stern eye looks over the vast expanse; he listens attentively to every sound that comes to his quick ear from afar, glancing now and then on the earth beneath, lest even the light tread of the fawn may pass unheard. His mate is perched on the opposite side, and, should all be tranquil and silent, warns him by a cry to continue patient. At this well known call the male partly opens his broad wings, inclines his body a little downwards, and answers to her voice in tones not unlike the laugh of a maniac. The next moment he resumes his erect attitude, and again all around is silent.

"Ducks of many species—the teal, the widgeon, the mallard, and others—are seen passing with great rapidity, and following the course of the current; but the eagle heeds them not; they are at that time beneath his attention. The next moment, however, the wild, trumpet-like sound of a yet distant but approaching swan is heard.

A shriek from the female eagle comes across the stream; for, she is fully as alert as her mate. The latter suddenly shakes the whole of his body, and with a few touches of his bill, aided by the action of his cuticular muscles, arranges his plumage in an instant. The snow-white bird is now in sight; her long neck is stretched forward; her eye is on the watch, vigilant as that of her enemy, her large wings seem with difficulty to support the weight of her body, although they flap incessantly. So irksome do her exertions seem, that her very legs are spread beneath her tail to aid her flight. She approaches. The eagle has marked her for his prey. As the swan is passing the dreaded pair, the male bird starts from his perch, in full preparation for the chase, with an awful scream, that to the swan's ear brings more terror than the report of the large duck-gun.

"Now is the moment to witness the eagle's powers. He glides through the air like a falling star, and like a flash of lightning comes upon the timorous quarry, which now, in agony and despair, seeks by various manœuvres to elude the grasp of his cruel talons; it mounts, doubles, and would plunge into the stream, were it not prevented by the eagle, which, long possessed of the knowledge that by such a stratagem the swan might escape him, forces it to remain in the air, by attempting to strike it with his talons from beneath. The hope of escape is soon given up by the swan. It has already become much weakened, and its strength fails at the sight of the courage and swiftness of its antagonist. Its last gasp is about to escape, when the ferocious eagle strikes with his talons the under side of its wing, and with unresisted power forces the bird to fall in a slanting direction upon the nearest shore.

"It is then that you see the spirit of this dreaded enemy of the feathered race, whilst, exulting over his prey, he for the first time breathes at ease. He presses down his powerful feet, and drives his sharp claws deeper than ever into the heart of the dying swan. He shrieks with delight as he feels the last convulsions of his prey, which has now sunk under his unceasing efforts."

Fish, as we have said, forms no inconsiderable part of the diet of the White-headed Eagle; not that he often procures it by his own honest exertions, though occasionally he manages to obtain a few in shallow creeks; but he lives by the "law of might," availing himself of the labors of others, and especially of the osprey, or fish-hawk—an assiduous and patient fisher. Wilson describes this act of marauding violence with a master's

his brood, and looks down upon the plains beneath, yet far away, for food. Like the rest of its family, it subsists on carrion, and gorges itself to disgusting repletion, so as to become incapable of flight. In this state it is often captured, and the Indians are accustomed to expose the dead body of a cow or horse, so as to attract the notice of these birds as they are seen sailing in the sky. Down they sweep, and glut themselves with the luxurious banquet, when lo! the Indians appear with their lassos, throw them with unerring certainty, and gallop away, dragging after them the ensnared victims. These gigantic birds, contrary to what has been asserted, are far from being formidable; they are not ferocious, and their talons are too feeble to lacerate; neither can they carry away, from this cause, weights which prove no impediment to the eagle. The natives do not fear them, and are accustomed, with their children, to sleep near their resort, exposed to attack, were such ever to be apprehended.

Of the strength of the Condor, and its tenacity of life, we have many authentic accounts. Captain Head gives the narrative of a struggle between one of his Cornish miners and a Condor, gorged too heavily

for flight, and therefore not in the best state for the fray. The miner began by grasping the neck of the bird, which he tried to break; but the bird, roused by the unceremonious attack, struggled so violently as to render that no easy matter; nor after an hour's wrestling, though the miner brought away several of the wing feathers in token of victory, does it appear that the bird was despatched.

M. Humboldt relates, "that, during his stay at Riobamba, he was present at some experiments which were made on one by the Indians, who had taken it alive. They first strangled it with a lasso, and hanged it on a tree, pulling it forcibly by the feet for several minutes; but scarcely was the lasso removed, when the bird arose and walked about, as though nothing had happened to it. It was then shot with three balls, discharged from a pistol at less than four paces, all of which entered its body, and wounded it in the neck, chest, and abdomen; it still, however, kept its legs; another ball struck its thigh, and it fell to the ground, but it did not die of its wounds until after an interval of half an hour."



BATS.

THESE creatures, partaking both of the nature of quadrupeds and birds, have excited the wonder of mankind in all ages. There is a great variety of species, from the common bat of our climate to the vampyre of South America, whose wings stretch to the

extent of two feet. These animals live in caves and crevices during the day, and sally forth at evening to catch their prey. For this reason, there is a popular disgust of the whole tribe; yet the species among us are a harmless race. We cannot say as

much of the larger kinds, which sometimes darken the air, by their abundance, in hot climates. One species, already mentioned, is a formidable animal.

Captain Stedman, in his "Narrative of a Five Years' Expedition against the revolted Negroes of Surinam," relates that, on awaking about four o'clock one morning in his hammock, he was extremely alarmed at finding himself weltering in congealed blood, and without feeling any pain whatever. "The mystery was," says Captain Stedman, "that I had been bitten by the vampyre, or spectre of Guiana, which is also called the Flying-Dog of New Spain; and by the Spaniards, *perrovolador*. This is no other than a bat of monstrous size, that sucks the blood from men and cattle, while they are fast asleep, even, sometimes, till they die; and, as the manner in which they proceed is truly wonderful, I shall endeavor to give a distinct account of it.

"Knowing, by instinct, that the person they intend to attack is in a sound slumber, they generally alight near the feet, where, while the creature continues fanning with his enormous wings, which keeps one cool, he bites a piece out of the tip of the great toe, so very small, indeed, that the head of a pin could scarcely be received into the wound, which is, consequently, not painful; yet, through this orifice, he continues to suck the blood, until he is obliged to disgorge. He then begins again, and thus continues sucking and disgorging until he is scarcely able to fly, and the sufferer has often been known to pass from time to eternity. Cattle they generally bite in the ear, but always in places where the blood flows spontaneously. Having applied tobacco ashes as the best remedy, and washed the gore from myself and hammock, I observed several small heaps of congealed blood, all round the place where I had lain, upon the ground; on examining which, the surgeon judged that I had lost at least twelve or fourteen ounces of blood."

"Some years ago," says Mr. Waterton, in his "Wanderings in South America," "I went to the river Paumaron, with a Scotch gentleman, by the name of Tarbet. We hung our hammocks in the thatched loft of a planter's house. Next morning, I heard this gentleman muttering in his hammock, and now and then letting fall an imprecation or two, just about the time he ought to have been saying his morning prayers. 'What is the matter, sir?' said I, softly; 'is anything amiss?' 'What's the matter?' answered he, surlily; 'why, the vampyres

have been sucking me to death.' As soon as there was light enough, I went to his hammock, and saw it much stained with blood. 'There,' said he, thrusting his foot out of the hammock, 'see how these infernal imps have been drawing my life's blood.' On examining his foot, I found the vampyre had tapped his great toe. There was a wound somewhat less than that made by a leech. The blood was still oozing from it. I conjectured he might have lost from ten to twelve ounces of blood. Whilst examining it, I think I put him into a worse humor, by remarking that a European surgeon would not have been so generous as to have bled him without making any charge. He looked up in my face, but did not say a word. I saw he was of opinion that I had better have spared this piece of ill-timed levity."



THE FLAMINGO.

THIS bird resembles the family of cranes in its long neck and legs; but in many other respects it is quite different. It is taller and larger, and being of a bright scarlet color, is more gaudy. Its body is about the size of a swan, but such is the enormous length of its neck and legs, that when it stands upright, it is six feet and a half high.

This strange bird was formerly found in Europe, but its beauty, size, and delicate flesh, caused it to be hunted so much, that it has nearly disappeared there. Along the southern waters of the United States, and around the Gulf of Mexico, it is common. It has, however, become very scarce, and is not easily killed.



SERPENTS.

SERPENTS are not favorites; they appear, in all countries and all ages, to be hated by man. This arises, doubtless, from the stealthy, gliding character of the race, and from the venomous qualities which belong to a large part of the species. Perhaps, too, we owe these creatures a grudge, from the trick which was played off upon our mother Eve, by a certain personage, who took the guise of a serpent. At all events, no expression of detestation can be stronger than that conveyed by the proverb, — "A snake in the grass!"

Nevertheless, an amusing chapter might be made upon serpents. For the present, however, we content ourselves with a few extracts, remarking, by the way, that no department of nature seems more varied than this, as we have serpents of all colors, and all sizes, from an inch to fifty feet in length. It is probable, in early times, when the arts were little known, and mankind were but thinly scattered over the earth, that serpents—continuing undisturbed possessors of the forest—grew to an amazing magnitude, so that every other tribe of animals fell before them. We have many histories of antiquity, presenting us such a picture; and exhibiting a whole nation sinking under

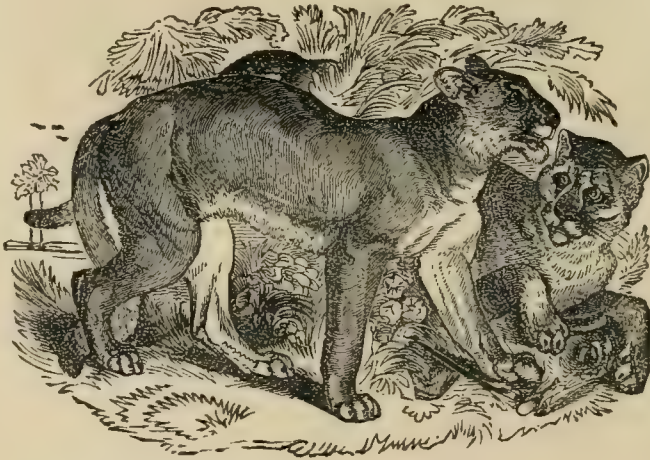
the ravages of a single serpent. We are told, that while Regulus led his army along the banks of the river Bagrada, in Africa, an enormous serpent disputed his passage over! We are assured by Pliny, who says that he himself saw the skin, that it was a hundred and twenty feet long, and that it had destroyed many of the army. At last, however, the battering engines were brought out against it, and these assailing it from a distance, it was soon destroyed.

Leguat assures us that he saw a serpent in Java that was fifty feet long and Carli mentions their growing to above forty feet. Mr. Wentworth, who had large concerns in Guiana, assures us that in that country they grow to an enormous length. He one day sent out a soldier with an Indian to kill a wild fowl, for the table; and they accordingly went some miles from the fort. In pursuing their game, the Indian, who generally marched before, beginning to tire, went to rest himself upon the fallen trunk of a tree, as he supposed it to be; but when he was just going to sit down, the enormous monster began to move, and the poor savage, perceiving that he had approached a Liboya, the greatest of all the serpent kind, dropped down in an agony of fear.

The soldier, who perceived at some distance what had happened, levelled at the serpent's head, and, by a lucky aim, shot it dead. However, he continued his fire until he was assured that the animal was killed; and then, going up to rescue his companion, who was fallen motionless by its side, he, to his astonishment, found him dead likewise, being killed by the fright! Upon his return to the fort, and telling what had happened, Mr. Wentworth ordered the animal to be brought up, when it was measured, and found to be thirty-six feet long.

In the East Indies serpents grow also to an enormous size; particularly in the island of Java, where we are assured that one of them will destroy and devour a buffalo. In a letter printed in the German Ephemerides, we have an account of a combat between an enormous serpent and a buffalo, by a person who assures us that he was himself a spectator. The serpent had for some time been waiting near the brink of

a pool, in expectation of its prey, when a buffalo was the first that offered. Having darted upon the affrighted animal, it instantly began to wrap it round with its voluminous twistings; and at every twist the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack almost as loud as the report of a cannon. It was in vain that the poor animal struggled and bellowed; its enormous enemy entwined it too closely to get free; till at length all its bones being mashed to pieces, like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body reduced to one uniform mass, the serpent untwined its folds to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and in order to make the body slip down the throat more readily, it was seen to lick the whole body over, and thus cover it with its mucus. It then began to swallow it at that end that offered least resistance, while its length of body was dilated to receive its prey, and thus it took in at once a morsel that was three times its own thickness!



THE AMERICAN PANTHER.

THIS animal goes under the various names of the American lion, the American panther, the puma, the cougar, the catamount, and the painter. He is peculiar to this continent, roaming over the woods of both North and South America. He has great strength, being able to carry off a sheep or deer at a gallop; but he prefers rather to live by his wit than his power. He always creeps upon his victim with a sly and noiseless step, and when at a

proper distance, rushes upon it with a bound, and grapples it with his formidable claws and teeth. The panther was once common in New England; but he has now emigrated westward.

A great many adventures have taken place with this creature in the woods. We can give but one of the stories told of it.

"Two hunters, accompanied by two dogs, went out in quest of game, near the Catskill Mountains. At the foot of a large hill, they

agreed to go round it in opposite directions, and when either discharged his rifle, the other was to hasten towards him, to aid in securing the game. Soon after parting, the report of a rifle was heard by one of them, who, hastening towards the spot, after some search, found nothing but the dog, dreadfully lacerated and dead. He now became much alarmed for the fate of his companion, and while anxiously looking around, was horror-struck by the harsh growl of a cougar, which he perceived on a large limb of a tree, crouching upon the body of his friend, and apparently medi-

tating an attack on himself. Instantly he levelled his rifle at the beast, and was so fortunate as to wound it mortally, when it fell to the ground, along with the body of his slaughtered companion. His dog then rushed upon the wounded cougar, which with one blow of its paw laid the poor animal dead by its side. The surviving hunter now left the spot, and quickly returned with several other persons, when they found the lifeless cougar extended near the dead bodies of the hunter and the faithful dog."



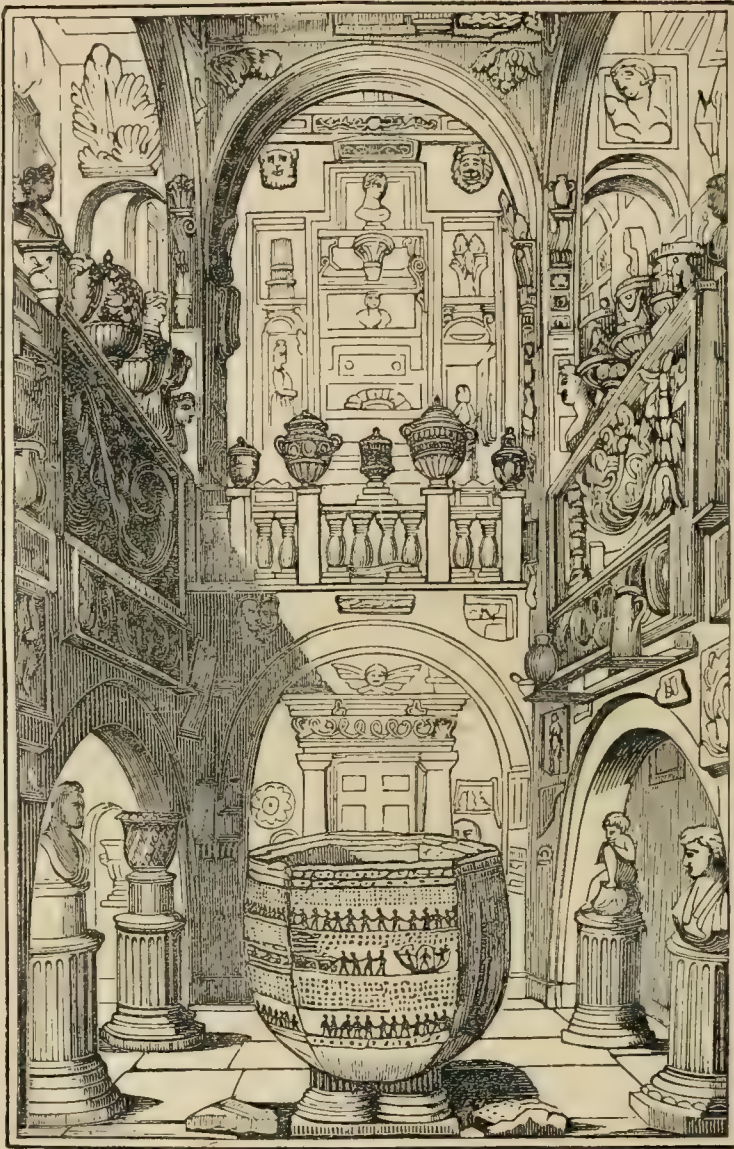
THE WALRUS.

THERE is only one species of this remarkable animal, yet the singularity of its appearance has procured for it a variety of names, as the morse, the sea-cow, the sea-horse, &c. The only animal which it resembles is the seal. It has two large tusks growing out of the upper jaw, directed downwards. From the high latitudes to which the walrus is chiefly confined, there has been but little ascertained respecting it. It is not even known with certainty upon what it feeds. Some suppose its food to be entirely animal; whilst others have represented it as feeding upon sea-weed. It is probable, however, that it may turn over the sea-weed with its long tusks, to dislodge the animals upon which it feeds from the rocks.

The walrus is sometimes found eighteen feet long, with tusks about two feet in length. Its general color is brown. It is a

social animal, and resorts in great numbers to favorite places on the far northern coast, where it lies on rocks and icebergs, till hunger compels it to resort to the water for food. It is not active on land, but its tusks enable it to climb up high banks with facility.

The walrus is esteemed for the oil which it affords. Their tusks also are very valuable. They are hunted for these articles, the ivory being harder and whiter than that of the elephant. When one of these animals is encountered on the ice, or in the water, the hunter strikes him with a strong harpoon made expressly for this purpose. The animal is then drawn to the nearest flat iceberg. They then flay him, separate the two tusks from the head, cut out the fat, and carry it to the vessel. A walrus will furnish half a ton of oil.



THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

THIS vast establishment is situated in Great Russell street, Bloomsbury, London. It consists of an immense collection of specimens in natural history, ancient coins and medals, ancient manuscripts, paintings, sculptures, and antiquities, Grecian, Roman, Egyptian, &c. This institution originated, many years since, in individual and private collections; these were purchased by government, and the establishment, having become a national one, has been liberally endowed, and is now the most splendid

assemblage of curiosities in the world. It consists of a sufficient number of rooms almost to make a village, and in these the specimens are arranged in the manner deemed most convenient for public exhibition and the use of persons who wish to avail themselves of the collection for study. It is open to the public, and is, in fact, a great resort, not only for the learned, but for the people at large, from the nobleman to the mechanic.

Another institution of great interest, and

of similar design, is the *Sloanean Museum*, devoted to architecture. The engraving at the head of this article presents one of the rooms in this edifice, which in fact is the former residence of Sir John Sloan, the originator of the institution. It is situated in Lincoln's Inn fields, and is fitted up with great skill and spendor for its present object.

The apartment represented in the engraving is called the *sarcophagus room*, on account of its being the place of deposit for the celebrated alabaster coffin, brought from Egypt by the renowned traveller and explorer, Belzoni. It is finely chiselled, and

is covered inside and out with hieroglyphic paintings.

This curiosity was brought from the caves of Gournon, on the banks of the Nile, and no doubt, from the vast labor bestowed upon its construction, was the sepulchre of some rich and famous person. When discovered, however, it was vacant—the remains which it once enclosed having been, doubtless, carried away. The price paid for this specimen of art was ten thousand dollars! It has been called *Alexander's tomb*, but there are no grounds for such a designation.



THE IGUANODON.

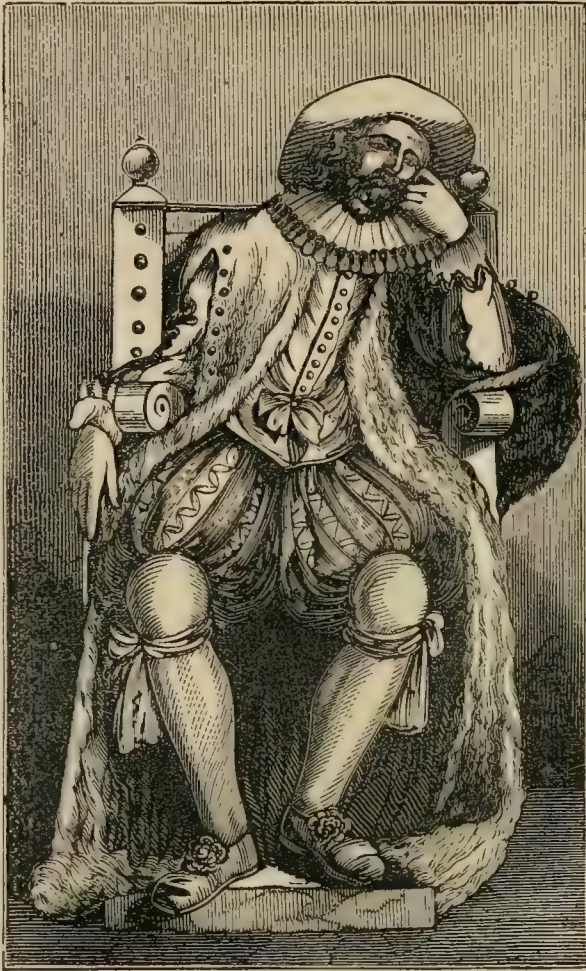
WE have already mentioned this monster, of which the race is now extinct. His bones were discovered in the south of England, by Dr. Mantel, a celebrated geologist.

From an examination of the teeth, the iguanodon must have lived upon vegetables. He was in fact an immense lizard, 70 feet in length, and 14 in circumference. Though his legs were short, the thigh-bone was 22 inches round, at the smallest part. On the nose the animal had a horn, something like that of a rhinoceros. Along his back was a row of spines, like those of the iguana, found in South America and the West Indies.

We can conceive of nothing more terrible than the appearance of this creature, when alive. A crocodile or alligator is a frightful object, especially when roused to action;

but how much more so must have been the iguanodon, with his enormous teeth, his bristling spines, and his horned snout, considering also that he was five times larger than the largest crocodile ever known.

Although few specimens of the bones of the iguanodon have been found, we know that at a former age of the world there must have been many of these creatures; and at the same time there were other wonderful animals, fit to be neighbors and companions of such monsters. Indeed, ages ago, the world seems to have been filled with strange, uncouth creatures. Most of these disappeared before the creation of man, though some remained to a later period. Of the latter, we may mention the *Mastodon*, resembling the elephant.



LORD BACON.

THIS celebrated man was born at York-House, in the Strand, London, January 22, 1561. His father, Nicholas Bacon, was an eminent lawyer, and lord-keeper of the great seal, during the first twenty years of Elizabeth's reign.

In boyhood, Francis Bacon was remarkable for sprightliness, and the smartness of his observations. The queen, who was much taken with him, used to try him with questions on various subjects. Upon one occasion, she asked him how old he was; his reply conveyed an ingenious compliment. "I am just two years younger than your majesty's happy reign," said he. This occurred when he was about six years old.

We know little of Bacon's early education; but as his father was a distinguished

statesman, and his mother a woman of superior mind, as well as of learning and piety, there is little doubt that he had every advantage. In his thirteenth year, he was sent to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he studied with diligence and success.

On leaving Cambridge, Bacon entered Gray's-Inn, as a student at law. He soon after went to Paris, in the suite of the British ambassador, and travelled in several countries on the continent. His father died in 1579; he then returned to London, and found that he was the only one of the family unprovided for. This compelled him to rely upon his own efforts. He devoted himself earnestly to the study of the law; but yet the love of philosophy was in him, and at this early period he planned his great work, the *Organon*, and which,

in the exultation of his youthful fancy, he proposed to call *The greatest Birth of Time*.

In 1592, Bacon was returned to parliament for the county of Middlesex, and distinguished himself in the debates by taking the popular side. In 1596, he published his "Essays, or Counsels, Civil and Moral," a work full of profound thought and useful observation. He was now in very embarrassed circumstances, and sought to mend them by a rich marriage. In this he failed, and was twice arrested for debt.

Upon the accession of James I., in 1603, his fortunes brightened. He had taken unwearied pains, by writing to various influential persons in Scotland, to have himself recommended to the king; and in this he was successful. His majesty came to London prepossessed in his favor, and soon bestowed upon him the honor of knighthood. He now rose rapidly, as well in his profession as in preferment. He was made solicitor-general, and held other offices. About 1607, he married Alice Barnum, daughter of a rich alderman of London.

Determined to lose no opportunity to pay his court to the king, and now being attorney-general, he took measures for the conviction of an aged minister of the gospel, by the name of Peacham, which has stamped his memory with indelible shame. This clergyman was apprehended for having in his possession a written sermon, in which it was alleged there were some treasonable passages. It was desired by the court that he should be punished, but the proof was inadequate. The practice of torture, for the purpose of obtaining evidence, had been common in the civil courts of England, though it was not theoretically avowed by the law. Bacon, however, gave his opinion in favor of torture in the present case, and the old minister was put to the rack. He, however, would confess nothing, and Bacon complained to the king that he had a "dumb devil." The proof being insufficient, the attorney-general did not now hesitate to tamper with the judges, and attempt to persuade them to convict the prisoner. In this he failed, and accordingly the brave old man, not being executed, was permitted the grace of drawing out his miserable existence in gaol. What tales of horror linger in the prisons of pious kings and holy judges!

Though involved in politics, and a sedulous courtier, as well as an active lawyer, Bacon still found time to cultivate philosophy, and at different periods published sev-

eral works, all displaying wonderful powers of mind, and seeming to show habits of thought, and a current of feeling, utterly at variance with the life he led. He passed through various stages of preferment, and in 1617 was made lord-chancellor, and in 1619 received the title of Viscount St. Albans. He had now reached the pinnacle of his wishes and the acme of his fame. In the beginning of the year 1620, he kept his birth-day with great state, at York-House, the place of his birth.

Bacon's literary reputation was not less brilliant than his political and professional fame. He was aware that his great work, the *Organon*, in which he set forth principles of philosophy which were to guide future ages, was one which would startle the world by the novelty of its doctrines, and perhaps subject him to temporary reproach. He elaborated it with the utmost care, and copied and revised it throughout no less than twelve times. Taking advantage of his present elevated position, he ventured upon its publication.

This work has now taken its rank among the highest productions of the human mind; but it was at first received with mingled sneers and admiration. Wits and geniuses turned it into ridicule. Dr. Andrews, a wag of the time, wrote some doggerel lines, in which he spoke of St. Albans, which furnished Bacon his title, as on the high road to *Duncetable*,—that is, Dunstable! The pedantic king, who was sadly bothered with the book, said it was "like the peace of God—that passeth all understanding!" Sir Edmund Coke wrote, in the title-page, under the device of a ship,

"It deserveth not to be read in schools,
But to be freighted in the ship of fools."

Bacon was, however, understood by some. Ben Jonson, soon after his lordship's death, spoke of the work in exalted terms; and Sir Henry Walton, who had received a copy from the author, wrote to him as follows: "Your lordship hath done a great and everlasting benefit to all the children of nature and to nature herself—who never before had so noble and so true an interpreter." On the continent the work was still more favorably received than at home.

But from this point the sun of Bacon declined, and soon set forever. While he was seeking with anxious care and patient toil to establish his literary reputation, he was laying the train which would ere long explode, and blacken his name with everlasting infamy. He had run into a course of lavish expenditures, and though his in-

come was enormous, it was still insufficient to supply his wants. He became unscrupulous as to the means in which he obtained money; his principles were undermined; and at last he did not scruple to use his official power to replenish his purse.

Inquiry into these practices was set on foot, and Lord Bacon was found guilty. He was stripped of his offices, and imprisoned for a time in the Tower. He now returned to private life, and devoted himself to study, till his death, in 1626. He

was one of the greatest of English philosophers, and his works have had a prodigious effect on mankind. He was the first writer, in modern times, to point out clearly and distinctly the true principles of philosophy, or the rule for the discovery of truth. His malversations in office were great, but it is perfectly well known that they were of a kind common in his day, and we may, therefore, plead this as some alleviation of the heavy sentence which has been passed upon him.



CHIVALRY.

THE institution and spirit of chivalry form a prominent and important feature of history, and have been regarded by writers and men of erudition in various points of view; while some have condemned it as altogether injurious and absurd, others have dignified it with the title of sublime! There have been found men of modern days, and those the fortunate possessors of more than common abilities, who could sigh over the degeneracy of the times, and lament that the age of chivalry is gone. But if the material and least worthy part of it has passed away, its spirit still remains, still invites men to high and honorable deeds, and is indeed imperishable and

immortal. The vows of knighthood, the ceremonials of installations, the pomp and ceremony of knightly feats, have gone; but the devotion of the patriot, the ardor of the warrior, the warmth of the lover, the fidelity of the friend, the loyalty and truth of the man of honor, do not sleep in the graves of Charlemagne, Roland, and Bayard.

In seeking for the origin of chivalry, we are led back to the feudal ages, and the consideration of the condition of the Geomanic tribes, when its peculiar spirit first began to display itself. The tribes were composed, not of superiors and inferiors, but of masters and slaves; of men whose birthright was ease and honor, and of others who inherited

the bond of ceaseless toil. By the noble-born, labor of any kind was considered degrading, and the profession of arms alone worthy of being followed; so that the lords of the soil were a race of independent warriors, whose thirst for fame was a continual excitement. The different feudal sovereigns were nominally subject to a legitimate prince, and were bound to follow his banner into battle, at the head of their vassals, and to respond to his call, by bringing, at a moment's warning, an armed force to his support. Still, when removed from the presence of his sovereign, the feudal lord was a petty despot, whose vassals felt that he possessed absolute power of life and death over them.

Unlimited authority gave rise to various abuses, and it was well that chivalry, with its high tone of honor and morality, sprang up in ages of general darkness, fraud, and oppression. Great enterprises contributed to bind numbers of knights together, and led to the formation of various societies and orders; and when these military adventurers were not leagued together in any of the Holy Wars, a reciprocity of principle, and an identity of religion, held them in a common chain. Animated by a love of justice, a veneration for the fair sex, a high-minded regard for truth, a thirst for military glory, and a contempt for danger, the knights went forth, to brave peril, to rescue the unfortunate, and to crush the oppressor. Numerous individuals set forth with no fixed purpose but that of discovering some wrong and righting it, and these wandering champions were called *Knights Errant*, and their exploits sang in camp and court by the minstrels, whose lays immortalized the sons of chivalry. Chivalry degenerated, but not rapidly. After the lapse of many years from its foundation, the number of its ceremonials increased, its pageantry was disgraced by frippery and folly, its vows were unobserved; a devotion to the sex was succeeded by boundless licentiousness, and the wandering spirit of knight-errantry was displaced by an affectation of eccentricity.

In the fourteenth century, the honors of knighthood were restricted to the nobility, and then arose the various forms and ceremonies, which at length concealed the original design of chivalry, and brought on a premature decline. The knightly education of a youth generally commenced with his twelfth year, when he was sent to the court of some noble pattern of chivalry, to learn dancing, riding, the use of his weapon, &c., and where his chief duty was assiduous

attention to the ladies in the quality of page. According to his progress in years and accomplishments, he became squire to some knight, and when he fairly merited the distinction, he was himself knighted. This honor was not conferred upon a youth before his twenty-first year, unless high birth, or extraordinary valor and address, seemed to warrant the setting aside of the usual regulation. Sometimes the honor was won by many a field of bloody toil, with many drops of sweat and gore, and not unfrequently, one daring achievement, artfully planned, and gallantly carried into execution, procured the wished-for spurs, and the anticipated *accolade*.

The ceremony of conferring knighthood was often performed on the field of battle, where the honor had been earned; often it required and received the most imposing preparations and ceremonies. The young candidate guarded his arms for a night, and this was called the *vigil of arms*. In the morning, he bathed in water, which was the emblem of the truth and purity which he swore to preserve sacred. Clad in spotless garments, he kneeled before the altar of the nearest church, and, having presented his sword to the officiating priest, received it again with the benediction of the reverend man. After taking the oaths of allegiance, he knelt before his sovereign, who gave him the *accolade*, or blow upon the neck with the flat of his sword, saluted the young warrior, and said: "In the name of God and St. Michael, (or, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost,) I dub thee a knight. Be loyal, brave, and fortunate."

It was customary for two knights of the same age and congenial tempers to form a friendship, and this brotherhood in arms lasted generally until one of the two was laid in the grave. The courtesy of chivalry softened the asperity of war, gave charms to victory, and assuaged to the vanquished the pain of a defeat. All that ingenuity could plan, and wealth produce, to give splendor to knighthood, was displayed in the age of chivalry. Magnificent tournaments were held, where even kings entered the lists, and contended for the prize of valor, before the eyes of thousands of spectators, among whom beautiful ladies appeared the most deeply interested. In fact, the knights often contended about the charms of their lady-loves, and wore their favors in their helmets. If the ladies of Rome attended gladiatorial shows in throngs, we cannot wonder that the beauties of the age of chivalry looked forward to a tournament

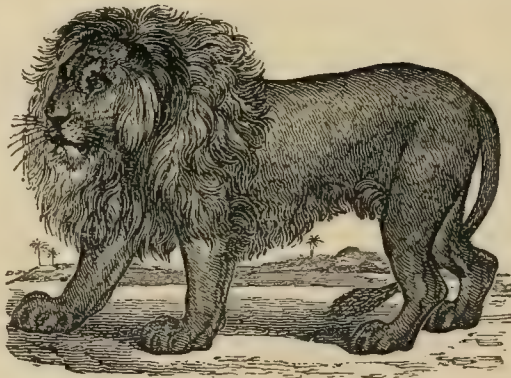
with great impatience, and eagerly strove for the honor of filling the post of temporary queen and distributor of the prizes.

Chivalry exerted a powerful influence on poetry, and formed the subjects of the poems of the *troubadours*, of the south of France, as well as supplied themes for the poetical controversies of the knights, which were decided at the *cours d'amour*, (courts of love,) first established in Provence. Even after chivalry had died away, its influence was not unfelt by poetry, which retained the tone it had imparted for many centuries. The songs of the troubadours were divided into amatory songs, duets, pastorals, serenades, ballads, poetical colloquies, &c.

In the romances of chivalry we behold paladins and peers, sorcerers, fairies, winged and intelligent horses, invisible or invulnerable men, magicians, who are interested in the birth and education of knights, enchanted palaces; in a word, the creation of a new world, which leaves our vulgar planet far beneath it. Paladins, never without arms, in a country bristling with fortresses, find their delight and honor in punishing injustice and defending weakness. The chivalric romances may be divided into three classes; — those of the Round Table, those of Charlemagne, and, lastly, those of Amadis, which belong to a later century. It will suffice to speak of the former. The romances of the Round Table recount tales of the cup from which Jesus Christ drank with Joseph, of Arimathea! This cup had performed such prodigies, that we are not as-

tonished that those valorous knights of the Round Table, Lancelot, Perceval, and Perceforest, are united with the determination to recover it. These *preux chevaliers* are the perpetual heroes of these romances. Lancelot is attached to Genicore, the wife of King Arthur, and his marvellous exploits excited the admiration of contemporaries. Three centuries after, lords and ladies were still delighted at the recital of "the very elegant, delicious, mellifluous, and very pleasant historie of the very noble and very victorious Perceforest." Amidst many pages of wearisome insipidity, we find some happy descriptions and situations detailed, and graphic portraits of feudal men and manners.

The absurdities of chivalry afforded scope for the satirical and comic powers of Cervantes, and the adventures of the unfortunate Don Quixote are read with an interest which few works of similar character inspire. Every feature of chivalry is happily burlesqued, and the Don goes through all the ceremonials with a ludicrous gravity which is perfectly irresistible. The pertinacity with which the knights maintained the preëminence of the ladies of their affections, is finely satirized in the election which Don Quixote makes of a hideous country-wench, whose charms he celebrates after the most approved fashion, and with unceasing devotion. Few ladies of chivalric romance have attained a degree of reputation comparable to that of the immortal Dulcinea del Toboso.



THE LION.

THIS animal stands at the head of the numerous family of cats, and has often been ranked by naturalists as the lord of the brute creation, and holding the same rela-

tion to quadrupeds as the eagle does to birds.

Like all the rest of his genus, the lion steals upon his prey, and, when at a proper

distance, rushes upon it with a bound, securing it with his sharp claws. In general he is cowardly; but, in pursuit of his prey, he is, to the last degree, fearless and ferocious. His strength is so great that he can break a man's skull with the stroke of his paw, and can drag the body of a cow over the ground at a gallop. His roar is terrific, and when heard, the animals around seem agitated with the wildest terror. The lion is common in the hot parts of Africa, and is occasionally found in India.

It is probable that the lion does not usually venture upon any one who puts himself in a posture of defence. The following anecdote would seem to show that this is the case. A young man was walking, one day, on his lands in the southern parts of Africa, when he unexpectedly met a large lion. Being an excellent shot, he thought himself sure of killing him, and therefore fired. But, unfortunately, the charge had been in the piece for some time, and the ball fell before it reached the animal. The young man, seized with panic, now took to his heels; but being soon out of breath, and closely pursued by the lion, he jumped upon a little heap of stones, and there made a stand, presenting the butt-end of his gun to his adversary, fully resolved to defend his life as well as he could. This movement had such an effect upon the lion, that he likewise came to a stand; and, what was still more singular, laid himself down at some paces' distance from the stones, seemingly quite unconcerned. The sportsman, in the mean while, did not dare to stir a step from the spot; besides, in his flight, he had lost his powder-horn. At length, after waiting a good half hour, the lion rose up, and retreated slowly, step by step, as if it had a mind to steal off; but as soon as it got to a greater distance, it began to bound away with great rapidity.

To the traveller in Africa, the lion is formidable not at night only; he lies in his path, and is with difficulty disturbed, to allow a passage for his wagons and cattle, even when the sun is shining with its utmost brilliancy; or he is roused from some bushy place on the road-side by the indefatigable dogs, which always accompany a caravan. Mr. Burchell has described, with great spirit, an encounter of this nature:—

"The day was exceedingly pleasant, and not a cloud was to be seen. For a mile or two we travelled along the banks of the river, which in this part abounded in tall mat-rushes. The dogs seemed much to enjoy prowling about, and examining every

bushy place, and at last met with some object among the rushes which caused them to set up a most vehement and determined barking. We explored the spot with caution, as we suspected, from the peculiar tone of their bark, that it was, what it proved to be, lions. Having encouraged the dogs to drive them out, a task which they performed with great willingness, we had a full view of an enormous black-maned lion and lioness. The latter was seen only for a minute, as she made her escape up the river, under concealment of the rushes; but the lion came steadily forward, and stood still to look at us. At this moment we felt our situation not free from danger, as the animal seemed prepared to spring upon us, and we were standing on the bank at the distance of only a few yards from him, most of us being on foot and unarmed, without any visible possibility of escaping. I had given up my horse to the hunters, and was on foot myself; but there was no time for fear, and it was useless to attempt avoiding him. I stood well upon my guard, holding my pistols in my hand, with my finger upon the trigger; and those who had muskets kept themselves prepared in the same manner. But at this instant the dogs boldly flew in between us and the lion, and surrounding him, kept him at bay by their violent and resolute barking. The courage of these faithful animals was most admirable; they advanced up to the side of the huge beast, and stood making the greatest clamor in his face, without the least appearance of fear. The lion, conscious of his strength, remained unmoved at their noisy attempts, and kept his head turned towards . . . At one moment, the dogs, perceiving his eyes thus engaged, had advanced close to his feet, and seemed as if they would actually seize hold of him; but they paid dearly for their imprudence; for, without discomposing the majestic and steady attitude in which he stood fixed, he merely moved his paw, and at the next instant I beheld two lying dead. In doing this, he made so little exertion, that it was scarcely perceptible by what means they had been killed. Of the time which we had gained by the interference of the dogs, not a moment was lost. We fired upon him; one of the balls went through his side, just between the short ribs, and the blood immediately began to flow; but the animal still remained standing in the same position. We had now no doubt that he would spring upon us; every gun was instantly reloaded; but, happily, we were mistaken, and were not sorry to

see him move quietly away; though I had hoped in a few minutes to have been enabled to take hold of his paw without danger.

"This was considered by our party to be a lion of the largest size, and seemed, as I measured him by comparison with the dogs, to be, though less bulky, as heavy as an ox. He was certainly as long in body, though lower in stature; and his copious mane gave him a truly formidable appearance. He was of that variety which the Hottentots and boers distinguish by the name of the

black lion, on account of the blacker color of the mane, and which is said to be always larger and more dangerous than the other, which they call the *pale lion*. Of the courage of a lion I have no very high opinion; but of his majestic air and movements, as exhibited by this animal, while at liberty in his native plains, I can bear testimony. Notwithstanding the pain of a wound, of which he must soon afterwards have died, he moved slowly away, with a stately and measured step."



Charles returning to England, in 1660, as king.

CHARLES II., OF ENGLAND.

THIS individual was born in 1630, and was at the Hague when his father, Charles I., was executed. He lived upon the continent, going from one country to another, devising schemes for succeeding to the throne of England. The Scots, who had betrayed the father, invited the son to come there, which he did, and was crowned king in 1651. He marched with an army into England, but was defeated, and obliged to fly for his life. After many perilous adventures, he escaped to France.

In 1660, Cromwell being dead, and his son Richard having resigned the office of Protector, Charles was invited to return by General Monk, who was at the head of the army. This he did, and was received with demonstrations of joy and rejoicing by the people at large. With him, licentiousness, infidelity, and frivolity, returned to the court, and infected the upper classes in England.

He lived in the unbridled indulgence of his appetites and passions, taking little interest in public affairs, except to sell the interests of his country for money. He was, however, affable and witty; and by going abroad without ostentation, and mixing with the lowest of his subjects, Charles obtained a certain degree of popularity, and the name of the *merry monarch* distinguished him during his life. His wit was ready and pleasant, as Rochester, whose disposition much resembled the monarch's, happily expressed in the epigram in which he speaks of Charles as one

"Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

Charles and his courtiers being one day present at the exhibition of a man who daringly climbed to the spire of Salisbury cathedral, and planted a flag there—the king said to his favorite, "Faith, Rochester, this

man shall have a patent, that no one may do this but himself!"

There never was a more corrupt, selfish, and unprincipled ruler than Charles II.; yet at his death, the people seemed to mourn for him, as if he had been a benefactor, — such is the seductive and alluring power of monarchy over an ignorant and besotted nation. The closing scene of Charles' career is thus described by Macauley.

"The death of King Charles II. took the nation by surprise. His frame was naturally strong, and he did not appear to have suffered from excess. He had always been mindful of his health, even in his pleasures; and his habits were such as promise a long life and a robust old age. Indolent as he was on all occasions which required tension of the mind, he was active and persevering in bodily exercise. He had, when young, been renowned as a tennis-player, and was, even in the decline of life, an indefatigable walker. His ordinary pace was such, that those who were admitted to the honor of his society found it difficult to keep up with him. He rose early, and generally passed three or four hours a day in the open air. He might be seen, before the dew was off the grass, in St. James' Park, striding among the trees, playing with his spaniels, and flinging corn to his ducks; and these exhibitions endeared him to the common people, who always love to see the great unbend.

"At length, towards the close of the year 1684, he was prevented, by a slight attack of what was supposed to be gout, from rambling as usual. He now spent his mornings in his laboratory, where he amused himself with experiments on the properties of mercury. His temper seemed to have suffered from confinement. He had no apparent cause for disquiet. His kingdom was tranquil; he was not in pressing want of money; his power was greater than it had ever been; the party which had long thwarted him had been beaten down; but the cheerfulness which had supported him against adverse fortune had vanished in this season of prosperity. A trifle now sufficed to depress those elastic spirits, which had borne up against defeat, exile, and penury. His irritation frequently showed itself by looks and words, such as could hardly have been expected from a man so eminently distinguished by good humor and good breeding. It was not supposed, however, that his constitution was seriously impaired.

"His palace had seldom presented a

gayer or a more scandalous appearance than on the evening of Sunday, the first of February, 1685. Some grave persons, who had gone thither, after the fashion of that age, to pay their duty to their sovereign, and who had expected that, on such a day, his court would wear a decent aspect, were struck with astonishment and horror. The great gallery of Whitehall, an admirable relic of the magnificence of the Tudors, was crowded with revellers and gamblers. The king sat there, chatting and toying with three women, whose charms were the boast, and whose vices were the disgrace, of three nations. Barbara Palmer, Duchess of Cleveland, was there, no longer young, but still retaining some traces of that superb and voluptuous loveliness, which, twenty years before, overcame the hearts of all men. There, too, was the Duchess of Portsmouth, whose soft and infantine features were lighted up with the vivacity of France. Hortensia Mancini, Duchess of Mazarin, and niece of the great Cardinal, completed the group. She had been early removed from her native Italy, to the court where her uncle was supreme. His power, and her own attractions, had drawn a crowd of illustrious suitors around her. Charles, himself, during his exile, had sought her hand in vain. No gift of nature or of fortune seemed to be wanting to her. Her face was beautiful with the rich beauty of the South, her understanding quick, her manners graceful, her rank exalted, her possessions immense; but her ungovernable passions had turned all these blessings into curses. She had found the misery of an ill-assorted marriage intolerable, had fled from her husband, had abandoned her vast wealth, and after having astonished Rome and Piedmont by her adventures, had fixed her abode in England. Her house was the favorite resort of men of wit and pleasure, who, for the sake of her smiles and her table, endured her frequent fits of insolence and ill-humor. Rochester and Godolphin sometimes forgot the cares of state in her company. Barillon and Saint Evremond found in her drawing-room consolation for their long banishment from Paris. The learning of Vossius, the wit of Waller, were daily employed to flatter and amuse her. But her diseased mind required stronger stimulants, and sought them in gallantry, in basset, and in usquebaugh. While Charles flirted with his three sultanas, Hortensia's French page, a handsome boy, whose vocal performances were the delight of Whitehall, and were rewarded by nu-

merous presents of rich clothes, ponies, and guineas, warbled some amorous verses. A party of twenty courtiers were seated at cards around a large table on which gold was heaped in mountains. Even then the king had complained that he did not feel quite well. He had no appetite for his supper; his rest that night was broken; but on the following morning he rose, as usual, early. To that morning the contending factions in his country had, during some days, looked forward with anxiety. The struggle between Halifax and Rochester seemed to be approaching a decisive crisis. Halifax, not content with having already driven his rival from the board of treasury, had undertaken to prove him guilty of such dishonesty or neglect in the conduct of the finances as ought to be punished by dismissal from the public service. It was even whispered that the lord-president would probably be sent to the Tower before night. The king had promised to inquire into the matter. The second of February had been fixed for the investigation, and several officers of the revenue had been ordered to attend with their books on that day. But a great turn of fortune was at hand.

"Scarcely had Charles risen from his bed when his attendants perceived that his utterance was indistinct, and that his thoughts seemed to be wandering. Several men of rank had, as usual, assembled to see their sovereign shaved and dressed. He made an effort to converse with them in his usual gay style; but his ghastly look surprised and alarmed them. Soon his face grew black; his eyes turned in his head; he uttered a cry, staggered, and fell into the arms of Thomas, Lord Bruce, eldest son of the Earl of Ailesbury. A physician who had charge of the royal retorts and crucibles happened to be present. He had no lancet, but he opened a vein with a pen-knife. The blood flowed freely, but the king was still insensible.

"He was laid on his bed, where, during a short time, the Duchess of Portsmouth hung over him with the familiarity of a wife. But the alarm had been given. The queen and the Duchess of York were hastening to the room. The favorite concubine was forced to retire to her own apartments. Those apartments had been thrice pulled down and thrice rebuilt by her lover, to gratify her caprice. The very furniture of the chimney was massy silver. Several fine paintings, which properly belonged to the queen, had been transferred to the dwelling of the mistress. The sideboards

were loaded with richly wrought plate. In the niches stood cabinets, the masterpieces of Japanese art. On the hangings, fresh from the looms of Paris, were depicted, in tints which no English tapestry could rival, birds of gorgeous plumage, landscapes, hunting-matches, the lordly terrace of St. Germain's, the statues and fountains of Versailles. In the midst of this splendor, purchased by guilt and shame, the unhappy woman gave herself up to an agony of grief, which, to do her justice, was not wholly selfish.

"And now the gates of Whitehall, which ordinarily stood open to all comers, were closed. But persons whose faces were known were still permitted to enter. The antechambers and galleries were soon filled to overflowing; and even the sick room was crowded with peers, privy councillors, and foreign ministers. All the medical men of note in London were summoned. So high did political animosities run, that the presence of some Whig physicians was regarded as an extraordinary circumstance. One Roman Catholic, whose skill was then widely renowned, Dr. Thomas Short, was in attendance. Several of the prescriptions have been preserved. One of them is signed by fourteen doctors! The patient was bled largely. A loathsome volatile salt, extracted from human skulls, was forced into his mouth. He recovered his senses; but he was evidently in a situation of extreme danger.

"The queen was for a time assiduous in her attendance. The Duke of York scarcely left his brother's bedside. The primate and four other bishops were then in London. They remained at Whitehall all day, and took it by turns to sit up all night in the king's room. The news of his illness filled the capital with sorrow and dismay; for his easy temper and affable manners had won the affection of a large part of the nation; and those who most disliked him preferred his unprincipled levity to the stern and earnest bigotry of his brother.

"On the morning of Thursday, the fifth of February, the London Gazette announced that his majesty was going on well, and was thought by the physicians to be out of danger. The bells of the churches rang merrily; and preparations for bonfires were made in the street. But in the evening it was known that a relapse had taken place, and that the medical attendants had given up all hope. The public mind was greatly disturbed; but there was no disposition to tumult. The Duke of York, who had al-

ready taken on himself to give orders, ascertained that the city was perfectly quiet, and that he might, without difficulty, be proclaimed as soon as his brother should expire.

"The king was in great pain, and complained that he felt as if a fire was burning within him. Yet he bore up against his sufferings with a fortitude which did not seem to belong to his soft and luxurious nature. The sight of his misery affected his wife so much that she fainted, and was carried senseless to her chamber. The prelates, who were in waiting, had, from the first, exhorted him to prepare for his end. They now thought it their duty to address him in a still more urgent manner. Wm. Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, an honest and pious, though narrow-minded man, used great freedom. 'It is time,' he said, 'to speak out; for, sir, you are about to appear before a Judge who is no respecter of persons.' The king answered not a word.

"Thomas Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, then tried his powers of persuasion. He was a man of parts and learning, of quick sensibility and stainless virtue. His elaborate works have long been forgotten; but his morning and evening hymns are still repeated daily in thousands of dwellings. Though, like most of his order, zealous for monarchy, he was no sycophant. Before he became a bishop, he had maintained the honor of his gown by refusing, when the court was at Winchester, to let Eleanor Gwynn lodge in the house which he occupied there as a prebendary. The king had sense enough to respect so manly a spirit. Of all the prelates he liked Ken the best. It was to no purpose, however, that the good bishop now put forth all his eloquence. His solemn and pathetic exhortation awed and melted the bystanders to such a degree, that some among them believed him to be filled with the same spirit which, in the old time, had by the mouths of Nathan and Elias called sinful princes to repentance. Charles, however, was unmoved. He made no objection, indeed, when the service for the Visitation of the Sick was read. In reply to the pressing questions of the divines, he said that he was sorry for what he had done amiss; and he suffered the absolution to be pronounced over him according to the forms of the Church of England; but when he was urged to declare that he died in the communion of that church, he seemed not to hear what was said; and nothing could induce him to take the Eucharist from the hands of the bishops. A table with bread

and wine was brought to his bedside, but in vain. Sometimes he said that there was no hurry, and sometimes that he was too weak.

"Many attributed this apathy to contempt for divine things, and many to the stupor which often precedes death. But there were in the palace a few persons who knew better. Charles had never been a sincere member of the Established Church. His mind had long oscillated between Hobbism and popery. When his health was good and his spirits high, he was a scoffer. In his few serious moments he was a Roman Catholic. The Duke of York was aware of this, but he was entirely occupied with the care of his own interests. He had ordered the outposts to be closed. He had posted detachments of the guards in different parts of the city. He had also procured the feeble signature of the dying king to an instrument, by which, some duties, granted only till the demise of the crown, were let to farm for a term of years. These things occupied the attention of James to such a degree, that, though, on ordinary occasions he was indiscreetly and unseasonably eager to bring over proselytes to his church, he never reflected that his brother was in danger of dying without the last sacraments. This neglect was the more extraordinary, because the Duchess of York had, at the request of the queen, suggested, on the morning on which the king was taken ill, the propriety of procuring spiritual assistance. For such assistance Charles was at last indebted to an agency very different from that of his pious wife and sister-in-law. A life of frivolity and vice had not extinguished in the Duchess of Portsmouth all sentiments of religion, or all that kindness which is the glory of her sex. The French ambassador, Barillon, who had come to the palace to inquire after the king, paid her a visit. He found her in an agony of sorrow. She took him into a secret room, and poured out her whole heart to him. 'I have,' she said, 'a thing of great moment to tell you. If it were known, my head would be in danger. The king is really and truly a Catholic! but he will die without being reconciled to the church. His bedchamber is full of Protestant clergymen. I cannot enter without giving scandal. The duke is thinking only of himself. Speak to him. Remind him that there is a soul at stake. He is master now. He can clear the room. Go, this instant, or it will be too late.'

"Barillon hastened to the bedchamber, took the duke aside, and delivered the

message of the mistress. The conscience of James smote him. He started as if roused from sleep, and declared that nothing should prevent him from discharging the sacred duty which had been too long delayed. Several schemes were discussed and rejected. At last, the duke commanded the crowd to stand aloof, went to the bed, stooped down, and whispered something which none of the spectators could hear, but which they supposed to be some question connected with affairs of state. Charles answered in an audible voice, 'Yes, yes, with all my heart.' None of the bystanders, except the French ambassador, guessed that the king was declaring his wish to be admitted into the bosom of the Church of Rome. 'Shall I bring you a priest?' said the duke. 'Do, brother,' replied the sick man. 'But, no; you will get into trouble.' 'If it costs me my life,' said the duke, 'I will fetch a priest.'

"To find a priest, however, for such a purpose, at a moment's notice, was not easy. For, as the law then stood, the person who admitted a proselyte into the Roman Catholic Church was guilty of a capital crime. The Count of Castel Melnor, a Portuguese nobleman, who, driven by political troubles from his native land, had been hospitably received at the English court, undertook to procure a confessor. He had recourse to his countrymen who belonged to the queen's household, but he found that none of her chaplains knew English or French enough to shrive the king. The duke and Barillon were about to send to the Venetian minister, for a clergyman, when they heard that a Benedictine monk, named John Huddleston, happened to be at Whitehall. This man had, with great risk to himself, saved the king's life after the battle of Worcester, and had, on that account, been, ever since the restoration, a privileged person. In the sharpest proclamations put forth against popish priests, when false witnesses had infamed the nation to fury, Huddleston had been excepted by name. He, however, obtained some hints, through the intervention of Castel Melnor, from a Portuguese ecclesiastic; and thus instructed, was brought up the back stairs, by Chiffinch, a confidential servant, who, if the satires of that age are to be credited, had often introduced visitors of a very different description by the same entrance. The duke then, in the king's name, commanded all who were present to quit the room, except Lewis Duras, Earl of Feversham, and John Granville, Earl of Bath. Both these lords professed the

Protestant religion; but James conceived that he could count on their fidelity. Feversham, a Frenchman, of noble birth, and nephew of the great Turenne, held high rank in the English army, and was chamberlain to the queen. Bath was groom of the stole.

"The duke's orders were obeyed; and even the physician withdrew. The back door was then opened, and Father Huddleston then entered. A cloak had been thrown over his sacred vestments, and his shaven crown was concealed by a flowing wig. 'Sir,' said the duke, 'this good man once saved your life; he now comes to save your soul.' Charles faintly answered, 'He is welcome.' Huddleston went through his part better than had been expected. He knelt by the bed, listened to the confession, pronounced the absolution, and administered extreme unction. He asked if the king wished to receive the Lord's Supper. 'Surely,' said Charles, 'if I am not unworthy.' The host was brought in; and Charles feebly strove to rise and kneel before it. The priest bade him lie still, and assured him that God would accept the humiliation of the soul, and would not require the humiliation of the body. The king found so much difficulty in swallowing the bread, that it was necessary to open the door, and to procure a glass of water. This rite ended, the monk held up a crucifix before the penitent, charged him to fix his last thoughts upon the sufferings of the Redeemer, and withdrew. The whole ceremony had occupied about three quarters of an hour; and, during that time, the courtiers, who filled the outer room, had communicated their suspicions to each other by whispers and significant glances. The door was at length thrown open, and the crowd again filled the chamber of death.

"It was now late in the evening. The king seemed much relieved by what had passed. His natural children were brought to his bedside, the Dukes of Grafton, Southampton, and Northumberland, sons of the Duchess of Cleveland, the Duke of St. Albans, son of Eleanor Gwynn, and the Duke of Richmond, son of the Duchess of Portsmouth. Charles blessed them all, but spoke with peculiar tenderness to Richmond. One face, that should have been there, was wanting. The eldest and best beloved child was an exile and a wanderer. His name was not once mentioned by his father.

"During the night, Charles earnestly recommended the Duchess of Portsmouth

and her boy to the care of James; 'And do not,' he good-naturedly added, 'let poor Nelly starve.' The queen sent excuses for her absence by Halifax. She said she was too much disordered to resume her post by the couch, and implored pardon for any offence which she might unwittingly have given. 'Ask my pardon! poor woman,' cried Charles; 'I ask hers, with all my heart.'

"The morning light began to peep through the windows of Whitehall; and Charles desired the attendants to pull aside the curtains, that he might have one more look at the day. He remarked that it was time to wind up a clock which stood near his bed. These little circumstances were long remembered, because they proved beyond dispute that, when he declared him-

self a Roman Catholic, he was in the full possession of his faculties. He apologized to those who had stood around him all night for the trouble which he had caused. He had been, he said, a most unconscionable time dying; but he hoped that they would excuse it. This was the last glimpse of that exquisite urbanity, so often found potent to charm away the resentment of a justly incensed nation. Soon after dawn the speech of the dying man failed. Before ten his senses were gone. Great numbers had repaired to the churches at the hour of morning service. When the prayer for the king was read, loud groans and sobs showed how deeply his people felt for him. At noon, on Friday, the sixth of February, he passed away without a struggle."

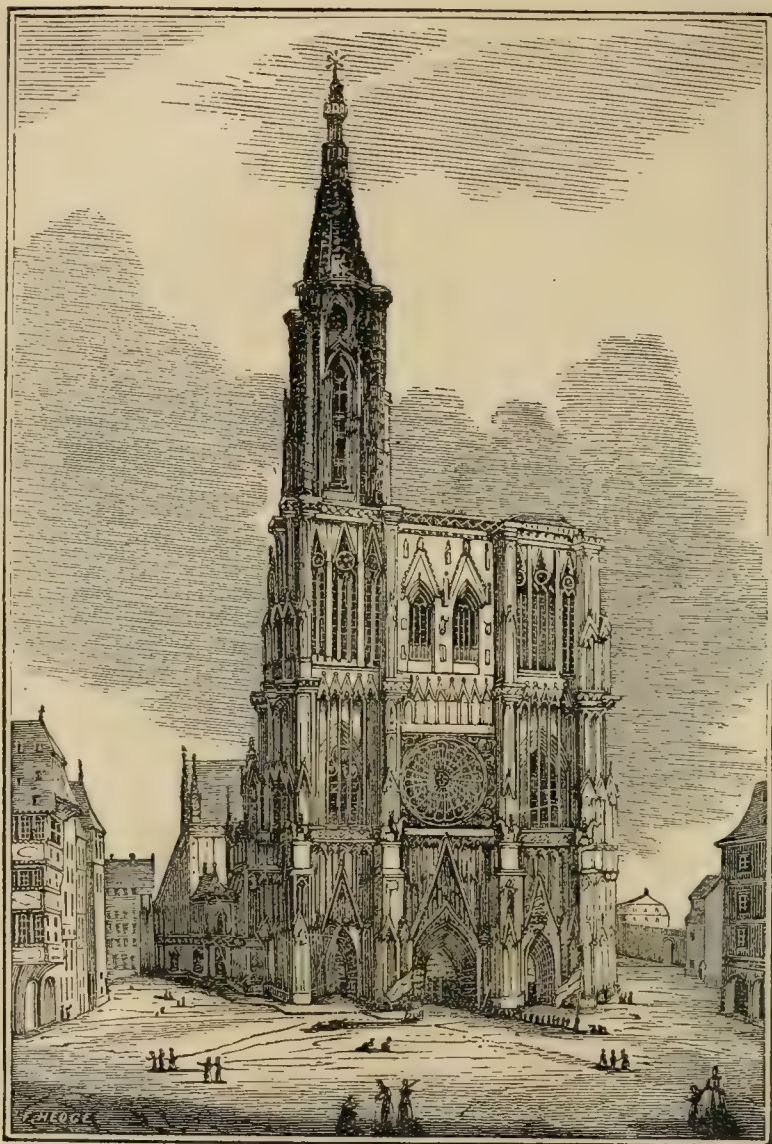


THE PELICAN.

THE common pelican is of a grayish-white. The bill is of great length, and hooked at the end, and has under it a loose, flexible membrane, reaching to the throat, which forms a bag, capable of holding a large quantity of food for feeding its young. Like the duck or goose, its feet are webbed, all the toes being joined by the membrane, thus fitting it for swimming. The bones of this bird are solid, and not hollow like the bones of other birds; and are also pellucid, or clear. It is said that the bag under their throat is capable of enlargement, sufficient to hold two human heads!

The pelican is nearly twice the size of a swan. Pelicans haunt desert places, where

there are rivers or pools, and marshy spots. Hence, the Psalmist compares himself to a pelican of the wilderness. The voice of this bird is harsh and disagreeable, resembling the sounds uttered by a man in great suffering and distress. On this account, David compares his groaning to the voice of the pelican. In affection to their young, pelicans furnish an example even to human parents. If the nest containing their young is set on fire, they will flap their wings over the kindled nest, even at the hazard of their own lives. These birds are common in America, as well as the Eastern Continent. Our western rivers and lakes, and the southern shores of the sea, swarm with them.



STRASBURG CATHEDRAL.

STRASBURG, a strongly fortified town of France, near the Rhine, has about 75,000 inhabitants. It is in the department of Bas Rhin. It has the appearance of a German town, and German is spoken by the mass, though French is taught in the schools.

The principal and most interesting building in the town is the *Cathedral* or *Münster*, one of the noblest Gothic edifices in Europe, remarkable for its spire, the highest in the world, — rising 474 feet above the pavement.

It is nearly equal to the great pyramid of Egypt, and 140 feet higher than St. Paul's.

The artist who designed this admirable masterpiece of airy openwork was *Erwin of Steinbach*: his plans are still preserved in the town. He died in 1318, when the work was only half finished: it was continued by his son, and afterwards by his daughter Sabina. The tower, begun 1277, was not completed till 1439, long after their deaths, and 424 years after the church was

commenced, by John Hültz, of Cologne, who was summoned to Strasburg for this end. Had the original design been carried into execution, both the towers would have been raised to the same height. A doorway, in the south side of the truncated tower, leads to the summit of the spire.

On the platform, about two thirds of the way up, is a telegraph, and a station for the watchmen, who are set to look out for fires. One of them will accompany those who wish to mount the upper spire, and will unlock the iron gate which closes the passage. There is no difficulty or danger in the ascent to a person of ordinary nerve or steadiness of head; but the stone-work of the steeple is so completely open, and the pillars which support it are so wide apart, and cut so thin, that they more nearly resemble a collection of bars of iron or wood; so that at such a height one might almost fancy one's self suspended in a cage over the city; and, if the foot were to slip, the body might possibly drop through the open fret-work.

At the same time, the elaborateness of the tracery, and the sharpness of the angles

and ornaments, are proofs of the skill of the architect, and the excellent materials he had chosen; and it is only by a close inspection that the delicacy of the workmanship can be truly appreciated. Within a few feet of the top, the winding stairs terminate, under a species of carved rosette. Several instances are recorded of persons who have either fallen, or have thrown themselves, off the top. The upper part of the spire, within and without, is covered with neatly carved names, chiefly of freemasons, who have visited it; among them may be read Stolberg, Göthe, Schlosser, Herder.

The view of the multitude of rusty-colored tiled roofs of the town is not very pleasing; nor is it the birds-eye panorama of the rich district around, of the Rhine and Black Forest in Germany, and of the Vosges Mountains on the side of France, that will reward the adventurous climber; but rather the exploit, the great elevation, and the near view which it affords of the steeple.

The interior of this wonderful building is curious and interesting, but we have not space to give a detailed description of it.



THE PATAGONIANS.

PATAGONIA is the most southern country in South America. It has never been much explored; so that we can say but little more about it, than that the northern parts have a milder climate and a more productive soil than the southern parts, which are intensely

cold. It is as cold there as at Cape Horn, or in the northern part of Canada. Of the inhabitants, also, we can give no very particular account. Some Europeans, however, have visited them, during their voyages of trade or discovery.

In 1764, Commodore Byron landed in Patagonia, and had an interview with the natives. They had always been said to be *giants*, and he found them to be so. They seemed to him to be generally six feet and a half high, and some of them quite seven feet. The tallest Americans are seldom over six feet, generally not more than five feet and seven and ten inches.

He found them not only thus tall, but very robust. Their hands and feet, however, are small. They are a warlike tribe, yet courteous and humane. In their complexion they are copper-colored. They have straight, black, and coarse hair, usually tied behind with a string. They paint themselves with circles round the eyes, and with various colors. Their teeth are exceedingly white, and remarkably even and well set.

Their dress is made of the skin of the guanaco, sewed together into pieces about six feet long and five broad, which are wrapped as a cloak round their body. The upper part, however, falls back, and thus exposes the neck and shoulders to the weather, and makes them look almost naked. They appear to eat raw flesh of animals. They are excellent horsemen, and will pursue their game on horseback, in places of danger, where a European would be afraid to go.

In 1766, Captain Welles visited Patagonia, and while there, he took several of the people on board his ship; but he was surprised to find that they had no curiosity about anything, excepting a looking-glass, before which they danced and played a thousand tricks.



THE SPECTRE OF THE BROCKEN.

THE Brocken is a mountain of the Hartz range, in Hanover, Germany. Its top is only 3400 feet above the level of the sea, yet it is celebrated on account of the spectral phenomena which are sometimes witnessed there. The whole region around has been, indeed, converted into a land of enchantment, by the fanciful people of the country. Every hill, and glen, and wood, in the vicinity, has been made the theatre of some supernatural legend.

The traveller who visits this spot may be puzzled to find these creations of imagination, but the *Spectre of the Brocken* is a reality, and may still be seen if one will have the patience to wait till the ghost condescends to make its appearance. One of the visitors to this spot thus describes what he saw:

Having ascended the Brocken for the thirtieth time, I was at length so fortunate as to have the pleasure of seeing this phe-

nomenon. The sun rose about four o'clock, and the atmosphere being quite serene towards the east, its rays could pass without any obstruction over the Heinrichsberg mountain. About a quarter past four, I looked round to see whether the atmosphere would permit me to have a free prospect to the south-west, when I observed at a great distance achtermannshöhe, a human figure of a monstrous size! A violent gust of wind having almost carried off my hat, I moved my hand toward my head, and the colossal figure did the same.

The pleasure which I felt at this discovery can hardly be described, for I had already walked many a weary step in the hope of seeing this shadowy image, without being able to gratify my curiosity. I made immediately another movement, by bending my body, and the colossal figure before me repeated it. I was desirous of doing the

same thing once more, but my colossus had vanished. I remained in the same position, waiting to see if it would return, and in a few minutes it again made its appearance on the achtermannshöhe. I then called the landlord of the neighboring inn, and having both taken the position which I had taken alone, we saw two colossal figures, which repeated their compliments by bending their bodies as we did; after which they vanished. I particularly noticed that this phenomenon was frequently very weak and faint, but sometimes strong and well defined. The time to ascend the Brocken is in the month of September, that being the only month in the year when the fogs and steams of this northern clime will allow an uninterrupted view. It is not advisable to attempt an ascent to the Hartz without a guide, as these mountains abound with dangerous marshes.



DIOGENES.

THIS person, whose fame has come down to us from antiquity, was born at Pontus in Asia Minor, about 419 B. C. He went to Athens at an early period, and joined the rigid school of the Cynics. Here he de-

voted himself, with the greatest diligence, to the lessons of his master, whose doctrines he afterwards extended and enforced. He not only despised all philosophical speculations, and opposed the corrupt morals of his

time, but also carried the application of his principles, in his own person, to the extreme. He exposed the follies of his contemporaries with wit and humor, though he really accomplished little in the way of reforming them. At the same time, he applied, in its fullest extent, his principle of divesting himself of all superfluities. He taught that a wise man, in order to be happy, must endeavor to preserve himself independent of fortune, of men, and of himself; and, in order to do this, he must despise riches, power, honor, arts and sciences, and all the enjoyments of life.

He endeavored to exhibit, in his own person, a model of Cynic virtue. For this purpose, he subjected himself to the severest trials, and disregarded all the forms of polite society. He often struggled to overcome his appetite, or satisfied it with the coarsest food; practised the most rigid temperance, even at feasts, in the midst of the greatest abundance, and did not consider it beneath his dignity to ask alms.

By day, he walked through the streets of Athens barefoot, with a long beard, a stick in his hand, and a bag over his shoulders. He was clad in a coarse double robe, which served as a coat by day and a coverlet by night; and he carried a wallet to receive alms. His abode was a cask in the temple of Cybele. It is said that he sometimes carried a tub about on his head, which occasionally served as his dwelling. In summer he rolled himself in the burning sand, and in winter clung to the marble images covered with snow, that he might inure himself to the extremes of the climate. He bore the scoffs and insults of the people with the greatest equanimity. Seeing a boy draw water with his hand, he threw away his wooden goblet, as an unnecessary utensil. He never spared the follies of men, but openly and loudly inveighed against vice and corruption, attacking them with keen satire, and biting irony. The people, and even the higher classes, heard him with pleasure, and tried their wit upon him. When he made them feel his superiority, they often had recourse to abuse, by which, however, he was little moved. He rebuked them for expressions and actions which violated decency and modesty, and therefore it is not credible that he was guilty of the excesses with which his enemies reproached him. His rudeness offended the laws of good breeding, rather than the principles of morality.

On a voyage to the island of Ægina, he fell into the hands of pirates, who sold him

as a slave to Xenias, a Corinthian. He, however, emancipated him, and intrusted to him the education of his children. He attended to the duties of his new employment with the greatest care, commonly living in summer at Corinth, and in the winter at Athens. It was at the former place that Alexander found him at the road-side, basking in the sun; and, astonished at the indifference with which the ragged beggar regarded him, entered into conversation with him, and finally gave him permission to ask him a boon. "I ask nothing," answered the philosopher, "but that thou wouldst get out of my sunshine." Surprised at this proof of content, the king is said to have exclaimed, "Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes." The following dialogue, though not given as historical, is designed to represent this interview.

Diogenes. Who calleth?

Alexander. Alexander. How happeneth it that you would not come out of your tub to my palace?

D. Because it was as far from my tub to your palace, as from your palace to my tub.

A. What! dost thou owe no reverence to kings?

D. No.

A. Why so?

D. Because they are not gods.

A. They are gods of the earth.

D. Yes, gods of the earth!

A. Plato is not of thy mind.

D. I am glad of it.

A. Why?

D. Because I would have none of Diogenes' mind but Diogenes.

A. If Alexander have anything that can please Diogenes, let me know, and take it.

D. Then take not from me that you cannot give me — the light of the sun!

A. What dost thou want?

D. Nothing that you have.

A. I have the world at command.

D. And I, in contempt.

A. Thou shalt live no longer than I will.

D. But I shall die, whether you will or no.

A. How should one learn to be content?

D. Unlearn to covet.

A. (to *Hephaestion*.) *Hephaestion*, were I not Alexander, I would wish to be Diogenes.

H. He is dogged, but shrewd; he has a sharpness, mixed with a kind of sweetness; he is full of wit, yet too wayward.

A. Diogenes, when I come this way again, I will both see thee and confer with thee.

D. Do.

We are told that the philosopher was seen, one day, carrying a lantern through the streets of Athens : on being asked what he was looking after, he answered, "I am seeking an honest man." Thinking he had found among the Spartans the greatest capacity for becoming such men as he wished, he said, "Men, I have found nowhere ; but children, at least, I have seen in Lacedæmon." Being asked, "What is

the most dangerous animal?" his answer was, "Among wild animals, the slanderer ; among tame, the flatterer." He expired 323 B. C., at a great age, and, it is said, on the same day that Alexander died. When he felt death approaching, he seated himself on the road leading to Olympia, where he died with philosophical calmness, in the presence of a great number of people who were collected around him.



THE LOCUST.

THIS most remarkable insect is called in the Hebrew language *arbeh*, a word which signifies to multiply. This name is given because of the immense and inconceivable swarms of these insects by which many eastern countries are infested.

The common brown locust is about three inches in length ; its antennæ are two in number, and about an inch long, and it is provided with two pairs of wings. This is necessary, from its weight and the immense distance through the air which it is sometimes destined to travel. The head and horns are brown, and also the upper side of the body and upper wings,—the former, in addition, spotted with black, and the latter with dusky spots. In general form and appearance there is a considerable resemblance to the grasshopper, so well known in this country. What is not the case with other insects, the males are much more numerous than the females. The males only make a noise, which is produced by a quick vibration of the wings against each other or

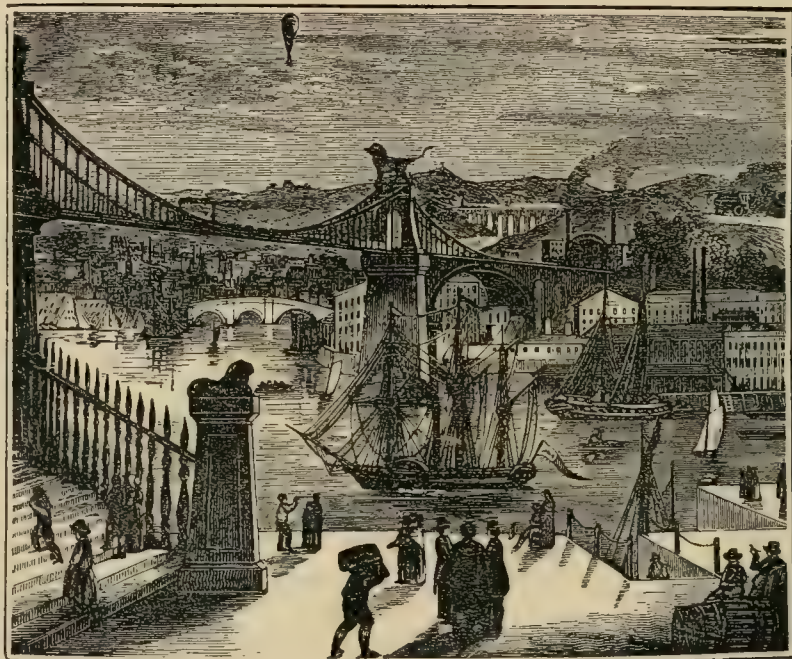
against their legs. It is very singular that the *nympha*, or *worm* of the locust, differs very little from the locust in its perfect state. In the nymph state, it moves and eats ; and there is only this difference, that the wings are not moved and expanded as in the perfect state, but are beautifully folded up in small compass, and form the appearance of two small buttons on the shoulder.

The number of the locusts is so extraordinary, that they will darken the whole sky for the extent sometimes of more than a hundred miles ! A captain of a vessel, it is said, saw the sky darkened and covered by them for several days, when navigating the ocean, to the east of the African continent. When they invade a country, if it is before them a garden of beauty, behind them it is a dreary desert ! They destroy every green thing ! They lay their eggs, and then die. Each one lays from two to three hundred eggs, which are hatched by the heat of the sun in the following spring.

Locusts have often proved a dreadful visitation of Providence. They were one of the ten plagues of Egypt; (Exod. x. 14.) In the days of Joel, the prophet, they occasioned a famine; (Joel ii. 1—11.) The locusts, according to the Levitical law, were ceremonially clean. John the Bap-

tist, in a great measure, lived upon them, and probably the Abyssinians at the present day do the same.

In the book of Revelation, false teachers and persecutors are compared to locusts coming out of the bottomless pit; (Rev. ix. 1—11.)



GREAT BRITAIN.

THE kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, all things considered, may be regarded as the most powerful the world has ever known. No ancient empire,—not even Rome itself,—possessed such elements of strength. The vastness of its wealth; its navy, claiming the dominion of the seas; its immense military capacity, with the general sagacity and energy of the government, render it the leading power in the world.

To the eye of the traveller, the three kingdoms seem almost like a mighty garden, strown over with cities, palaces, villages, and country-seats. Here are the finest roads, and the best travelling-vehicles in the world; railroads and canals cross the country in every direction; arts and manufactures are carried to the highest degree of perfection; and commerce brings hither the luxuries of every clime. London, the me-

tropolis of Great Britain, serves to indicate the character of the nation. It has two millions six hundred thousand of people, and surpasses all other cities in wealth and population. The government of England exercises a commanding influence, not only in the countries of Europe, but upon the fortunes of the world. Within our own day, China, which has more than one quarter of the inhabitants of the globe, has been compelled to bow to the will of this island empire.

The colonies of Great Britain extend over the whole globe, and contain a population of one hundred and fifty millions. In allusion to the immense extent and power of the British empire, it has been said by a celebrated orator, that she has "dotted the surface of the globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat, following the sun, and keeping com-

pany with the hours, circles the earth daily with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England."

Yet, notwithstanding this spectacle of "might, majesty, and dominion," there is, perhaps, no portion of the globe, where so large a part of the people are doomed to poverty, wretchedness, and despair, as in Ireland, Scotland, and England. While a few thousands are rolling in wealth, millions are perishing for the want of bread and the common comforts of life!



HAROUN AL RASCHID.

HAROUN AL RASCHID was one of the most celebrated of the Saracenic caliphs, and the territories which he governed extended from Egypt to Khorassan. He was no less distinguished for his taste, and the encouragement he afforded to literature and the arts, than for his power. He was the second son of the caliph Mahadi, and succeeded his elder brother, Hadi, A. D. 786. He differed, in so many respects, from the despots of the East, that he obtained the name of *al Raschid, the Just*, although many of his deeds would seem to destroy his claims to the title. The caliph was fond of personally ascertaining the condition of his people, when, divested of the dazzling attributes of rank, he feared no concealment on their part. Many instances of the wisdom and justice of his decisions have come down to us, and, among others, the following. A merchant, having lost a purse containing a large sum of money, caused the

loss to be proclaimed, with an accurate description of the purse and the value of its contents, offering a large reward to the person who should find and restore it to the owner. After some days had elapsed, a poor laborer presented himself before a magistrate with the purse, and claimed of the merchant, who was summoned, the reward which belonged to him. The merchant, rejoiced at finding his money, thought to avoid payment of the reward, by declaring that the purse contained, in addition to the money, an emerald of great value, which the finder must be compelled to restore. The poor laborer was overwhelmed by this assertion, and the magistrate appeared at a loss; but the caliph, who was present in disguise, advanced and decided the case. "Since," said he, "the merchant declares that the purse which he lost contained a sum of money and an emerald, and since the finder of this purse swears, and the seal upon the purse proves, that he has taken no precious gem, this cannot be the purse which the merchant has lost. Let then its present holder endeavor to discover the real owner, and, failing to do so, appropriate the prize; and let the merchant make diligent search for the money and the emerald which he has lost; the present property being, as he has proved, none of his."

Haroun was an ardent lover of learning, and caused it to be disseminated throughout his realms. He was a warm admirer of the ancient classics, and translations of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, with other works of antiquity, made his people acquainted with the beauties of Greek and Roman literature. He invaded the Greek empire no fewer than eight times, conquering, in 802, the Emperor Nicephorus, who had refused to pay him the customary tribute. The Greek monarch was compelled to pay a heavier tribute to the caliph, and promise not to re-build the frontier towns, which had been ruined and plundered.

The caliph's destruction of the family of the Barmecides displays the stern resolution of a despot. He had experienced the care of Yahia, the head of the Barmecide family, who had superintended his education, and the eldest of Yahia's sons was a general, who had served his country well; the second was Giaffer, the caliph's prime vizier, and the two other sons were in responsible and dignified stations. The Barmecides were in favor with all classes, and Giaffer stood high in the graces of the caliph. Indeed, so warmly attached was the latter to his vizier, that, for the sake of enjoying his

company, with that of his beloved sister, Abassa, he united them in marriage, but placed capricious restrictions upon their intimacy. On the disobedience of the pair, all the violent passions of the caliph were aroused. He publicly sacrificed Giaffer to his resentment, and impoverished the whole family.

Haroun, at the height of splendor and fame, sent an embassy to the Emperor Charlemagne, bearing, among other presents, a water-clock, an elephant, and the keys of the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem. The caliph was seized with a mortal illness, while preparing to depart upon a military expedition, and died at Tous, in Khorassan,

in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. None of the caliphs of the Saracens ever attained the height of power and popularity which Haroun al Raschid gained, and, although some of his acts are inexcusable, yet, considering the examples furnished by his age, and the preceding, we cannot withhold from him a large share of praise. Haroun is one of those characters which are equally the delight of history and romance, and while the graver acts of his reign employ the pen of the rigid annalist, his varied adventures are themes for the gay eloquence of such works as the Arabian Nights' Entertainment.



THE CRANE.

THE crane belongs to that class of birds called *waders*, and to that tribe called *heron*. The crane is a large bird, about five feet in length. The bill is more than four inches long. The feathers are ash-colored, the forehead is black, and on the upper part of the neck there is a space of about two inches, ash-colored and bare. At the tip of each wing there is a beautiful tuft of loose feathers, which the animal can erect at pleasure. The legs are long and stout, with a large naked space above the knee, and their toes are long. There is a pe-

culiarity about the windpipe; it runs considerably down the breast, then returns at the same passage, and descends to the lungs.

Cranes inhabit Europe, Asia, and America; and in autumn, they regularly migrate in flocks to the south. In Sweden and Poland they are so numerous as to become injurious to the fields of wheat. The female makes her nest among rushes, on alder-bushes, and occasionally on the roofs of detached houses. She generally lays two eggs of a green ash-color, spotted with brown.

Cranes live chiefly on slugs, worms, frogs, grain, and herbs which grow in the fields, or in marshy situations. In winter they resort in crowds to Egypt and the warmer parts of India. In their expeditions they fly exceedingly high in the air, forming an angular line. When the wind freshens, or when an eagle approaches, they assume the form of a circle. They take their journeys chiefly in the night, and as they advance, utter loud and discordant screams. During their voyages, their leader often calls to rally his troops, and guide them in their course, to which each individual answers, as if to give notice that it is following in the proper track. Here, the instinct of

the crane teaches a most important lesson, namely, that we should most carefully follow the course of virtue pointed out to us by wisdom and experience. When assembled on the ground, they are said to set guards; and, therefore, in the ancient hieroglyphics they were represented as symbols of circumspection and watchfulness. Hezekiah, during his severe sickness, "chattered as a crane," intimating that he cried loud because of the severity of his pain. (Isaiah xxxviii. 14.) The Jews are represented as more stupid than cranes, which know the time of their coming, while *they* knew not the season of their duty. (Jer. viii. 7.)



THE GIANT'S CAUSEWAY.

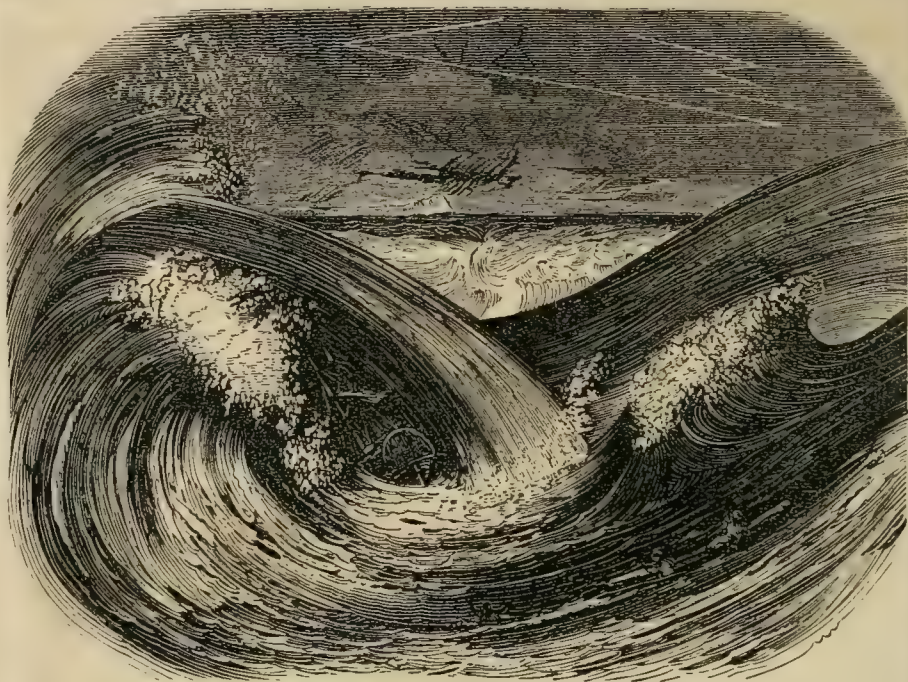
On the north of Ireland the coast presents a barrier of rock, from one hundred to three hundred feet above the sea, and frequently terminating in perpendicular cliffs. Here the ocean has been at work for centuries, and has wrought out of the stone a thousand fantastic objects, such as caverns, cliffs, and mounds, often resembling the works of art in its ruder stages.

Along this region of curiosities, the *Giant's Causeway* is the most remarkable object. It consists of three piers, projecting into the sea from the base of the cliff, which is here nearly two hundred feet high. These piers consist of basaltic columns, about a foot in diameter, and having from six to nine sides. They stand perpendicularly, but are jointed at distances of three or four feet. At these places they easily separate, though so closely formed that you cannot thrust the point of a knife between them. At a little distance, the division is not perceptible.

The piers thus described consist of these

perpendicular columns, sloping to the water; you can see them, continuing downward, in the waves for twenty feet. All around are heaps of these basaltic crystals, — sufficient to build a city. As you look up to the cliff, which presents many perpendicular faces, you see the columnar rocks, peeping out here and there, and in one place they so resemble the pipes of a gigantic *organ*, that it bears the name of that instrument.

This work of nature is not merely curious, but, owing to the grandeur of its scale, and the sublimity of the surrounding objects, it strikes the beholder with mingled wonder and awe. The idea is forcibly suggested to the mind, that some race of Titans or Anakims, once undertook to build a causeway across the arm of the sea to the opposite coast of Scotland; and that when they had gathered their materials and proceeded a short way in their enterprise, it was suddenly abandoned. It would seem that some such notion was indulged by the people who gave name to the place.



THE MAELSTROM.

WHIRLPOOLS are violent currents in the sea, caused by the flowing of waters over stones lying at the bottom. *Hurl-gate*, or *Hell-gate*, between the East river and Long Island Sound, near New York, is an example of this kind. In the narrow channel here, the tide flows backward and forward with great force; and there being large, irregular rocks in this channel, the water is thrown into the most violent agitation. In passing through the place, it is easy to see the waves seeming to boil as if in a pot. This place is dangerous to vessels, and many have been wrecked here; though the navigation is now so well understood that fewer accidents happen than formerly. The steam-boats generally pass in safety, but still the superb *Oregon* got upon the rocks here, within a year or two, and came near being lost.

Between Sicily and the main land are the Straits of Messina, where the current is rapid. Ancient mariners deemed this a terrible place; one side they called Scylla, and the other Charybdis. The poets depicted the sailor in this rapid, as beset by horrors; for if he escaped Scylla on one side, Charybdis was ready to dash him in pieces on the other. This idea has come down to our day, and has even passed into a proverb.

But the *Maelstrom*, on the coast of Norway, is a much more dangerous current.

It is situated between the Loffoden Islands, and is caused by the tides; though its terrors are sometimes greatly increased by the winds. The roar of the sea, when the Maelstrom is in full action, is said to be terrific. It is stated that not only ships, but even whales, have been sucked into this vortex, and killed by being dashed against the hidden rocks. The following description, though imaginary, gives a correct idea of the destruction of a ship in this whirlpool.

"The breeze, which had been long flagging, now lulled into a calm, and soon a low continual hum, like that of an army of bees, which seemed to rise out of the stilled ocean, became audible to every ear. Not a word was spoken; every one held his breath whilst he listened with an intensity of eagerness that betokened the awe that was fast filling the heart. 'It is the Moskoestrom!' cried the boatswain. 'The Moskoestrom!' echoed the crew. 'Away, men!' shouted the mate; 'down to the hold, bring up the spare sails, clear the deck, set up a spar for a mast, away, — away!'

"The din of preparation drowned the stern hum of the distant whirlpool; there was, however, an anxious pause when the new sail was set into the air; and experienced sailors suffered themselves to be cheated with the hope, that there was still breeze

enough to make the good ship answer her helm. But, alas! the heavy canvass refused to expand its folds, and not a breath of wind ruffled the dull surface of the sullen waters. They had not another hope; the sailors looked on one another with blank dismay, and now they heard, with awful distinctness, the roar of the terrible Maelstrom, and the frowning rocks of Loffoden were but too plainly visible on the right. It became evident to all, that the ship, borne along by the tide, was fast approaching the dreadful whirlpool. The vessel continued slowly to approach, and the certainty of unavoidable death became every moment more overpowering and intense. At first the sailors stood together in a group, gazing gloomily upon one another; but as the roar of the whirlpool became louder and louder, and the conviction of inevitable destruction became stronger, they all dispersed to various parts of the ship. * * *

"It was a beautiful day; the sun shone forth without a cloud to dim his lustre, the waves sparkled beneath his influence, and the white plumage of a thousand busy sea-birds became more dazzling with his rays. The Isle of Moskoe was close at hand, and looked cheerful and inviting, but the ship was not to approach nearer to its shores,—the stream which bore her along never suffered any vessel to pause in its career. And now there arose at some distance ahead of the vessel, a horrible and dismal bellowing. It was the voice of the Leviathan in his agony; and when those on deck who had still ears for exterior sounds looked forward to ascertain its cause, they beheld a huge black monster upon the surface of the sea, struggling against the irresistible stream, and with his immense tail lashing the waters into foam, as he vainly strove to escape from destruction. They beheld him borne away by the might of his furious enemy; and they heard his last roar above the noise of the whirlpool, as he was sucked down into the never satisfied abyss, and disappeared from their eyes to be torn to atoms; for such is the fate of everything that seeks the depths of the Maelström.

"The ship glides along faster and faster; she begins to toss and roll uneasily in the angry rapids that boil around her,—her race is nearly run. Terrible! terrible moment! The ship hurries on to her doom with mad impetuosity. She is in the rapids! she hurries along swift as a flash of fire. She is in the whirl of water! round, round, round she goes; her inmates catch hold of her bulwarks and of each other, to

steady themselves. And now her bowsprit is under the waves, and a wild shriek of despair rises into the sky! The whirlpool, with greedy jaws, has sucked her under."

The water of the whirlpool is said to be 250 feet deep, and at ebb its noise is as loud as a cataract. In 1645, it was so violently agitated by a storm, that in Moskoe the houses were so shaken as to cause the stones to fall to the ground. Fragments of vessels wrecked in the Maelstrom are frequently seen on the coast, brought up by the return of the tide—their edges mashed and jagged as with a saw, which would induce the belief that the bottom is composed of sharp rocks.



THE MANNA-TREE.

THE tree which produces the manna known in the shops is an ash of a peculiar quality. It grows in the south of Italy and Sicily. At the warmest season, the tree most abounds in sap, and, accordingly, in August the people make incisions into the bark. These are two inches long horizontally, and half an inch in depth. On incision, the manna immediately begins to flow, at first in the form of water, but it gradually becomes thicker. A leaf is inserted into the incision, which conducts the juice into a vessel placed at the foot of the tree. The liquor does not harden till it has remained some time. It has an unpleasant taste, but after the watery parts have evaporated, it is sweeter, but slightly nauseous.

The man in the cut is scraping off the juice which has exuded from and hardened

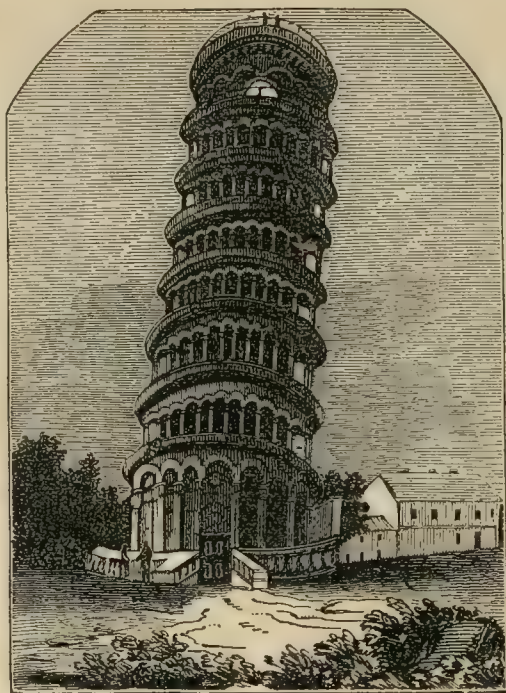
upon the tree, with a knife; this takes the form of icicles upon the bark.

Manna once formed a principal source of emolument in Sicily; but it has now nearly fallen into disuse, from our having so many other substances of more medicinal value. The properties of this drug are those of a gentle purgative, particularly adapted to the use of children.

This article must not be confounded with the manna spoken of in Scripture as the food of the Israelites in the deserts of Arabia. This was a small grain, as white as hoar frost, which fell every morning with the dew. During the forty years of their journey in the wilderness, this manna fell in a

sufficient quantity for every individual of a million of men to gather three quarts a day for his own use. It was made into a kind of paste, and baked in pans. It is called in Scripture the "bread of heaven."

There is a vegetable substance, called *manna*, in Arabia, Poland, and Mount Libanus, and other places. It is a kind of condensed liquor, found on the leaves of trees, herbs, rocks, and sometimes on the sands in Arabia. Some writers suppose this to be like that which fell for the Israelites. The Jews, however, and many others, are of opinion that it was a totally different substance from the vegetable manna, specially provided by the Almighty for his people.

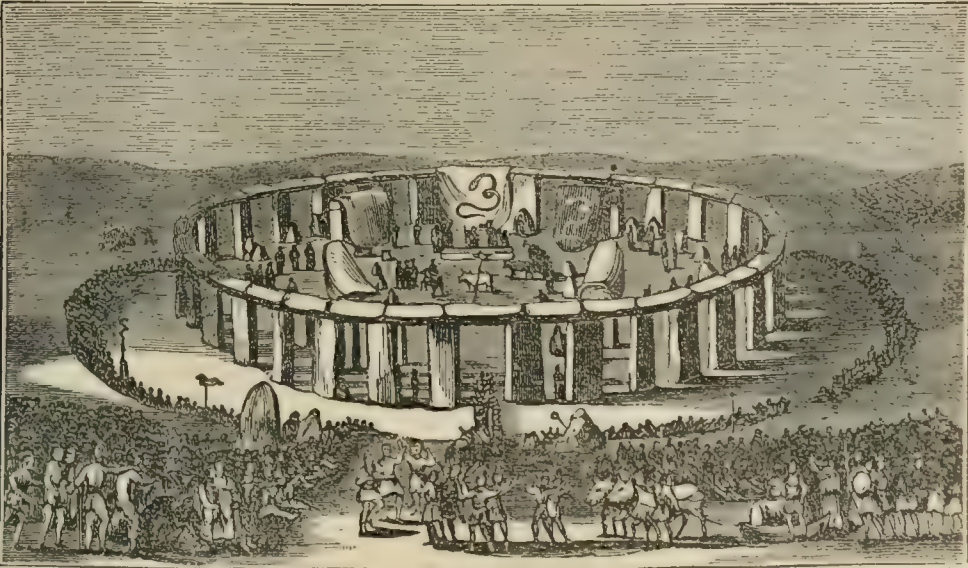


LEANING TOWER AT PISA, IN ITALY.

THIS celebrated tower is of a circular form, built entirely of white marble, and one hundred and eighty feet in height; there are two hundred and thirty steps by which you ascend to the summit; on the outside of each floor is a gallery, of which there are eight, and which is open in the interior; it was finished 400 years ago.

The tower was evidently intended as a belfry for the Duomo or Cathedral, close to which it stands. It is a beautiful piece of architecture, but its chief curiosity consists

in its being fourteen feet out of the perpendicular. Although it has been thought to have been built in its present inclined position from eccentricity on the part of the architect, yet there can be no reasonable doubt but that it is occasioned by the sinking of the earth on one side of it. The entrance is by two beautiful bronze doors, said to have been brought from Jerusalem. The view of the surrounding country from the top is extensive and beautiful.



STONEHENGE.

STONEHENGE is the most remarkable ancient monument now remaining in Great Britain; nor, indeed, is there known anywhere to exist so stupendous an erection of the same character. Even in its present half-ruined state, the venerable pile retains a majesty that strikes, at the first glance, both the most refined and the rudest eye; and the admiration of the beholder grows and expands as the more distinct conception of the original plan of the structure gradually unfolds itself from amidst the irregular and confused mixture of the standing and fallen portions, which, for a short time, perplexes the contemplation.

Stonehenge stands at a short distance from Amesbury, England, on the brow of one of those broad and gentle elevations which undulate the vast level of Salisbury Plain. The direction of the entrance, or avenue, is from north-east to south-west; and this appears to have been the only entrance to the enclosure in which the building stands; which is formed by a circular ditch, 369 yards in circumference, and having a slight rampart on the inner side. The building stands in the centre of this circular area. An outer circle of enormous upright blocks, having others upon them, as the lintel of a door is placed upon side posts so as to form a kind of architrave, has enclosed a space of 100 feet in diameter.

The upright stones in this circle had been originally thirty in number; but only seven-

teen of them are now standing. That portion of the circle which faces the north-east is still tolerably entire, and the doorway at the termination of the avenue may be said to be in perfect preservation. It consists of two upright stones, each thirteen feet in height, and between six and seven feet in breadth, with a third block placed over them, of about twelve feet in length, and two feet eight inches in depth. The space between the two posts is five feet, which is rather a wider interval than occurs between any two other pillars. Through the circle the broad side of the stone is placed in the line of the circumference, so that there must have been more of wall than of open space, in the proportion of $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 5. The imposts are fixed upon the uprights throughout, by the contrivance called a tenon and mortise; the ends of the uprights being hewn into tenons or projections, and corresponding hollows being excavated in the imposts. They are oval or egg shaped. Of course, there are two tenons on each upright, and two mortises in each of the imposts, which are of the same number with the uprights. The principal workmanship must have been bestowed upon these fittings; for, although the marks of the hewer's tool are visible upon the other parts of the stones, their surface has been left, upon the whole, rude and irregular. They are made to taper a little towards the top; but even in this respect they are not uniform. Within this great circle there is

another, formed by stones, not only much smaller, but also much ruder in their outline; of these there had originally been forty, but only twenty of them can now be traced. This circle has never had any imposts; it is about eighty-four feet in diameter, and consequently the interval between it and the outer circle is eight feet.

The next enclosure has been formed of only ten stones; but they are of very majestic height, exceeding that of the outer circle. They have been disposed in five pairs, and in the form of a half-oval, or rather of a horseshoe; the upper part facing the north end or great door; the two pairs, at the termination of the curve, which are distant from each other about forty feet, are each sixteen feet three inches in height; but the height of the next two pairs is seventeen feet two inches; and that of the last pair, the station of which has been directly facing the opening, was twenty-one feet and a half.

A striking effect must have been produced by this ascending elevation. A variety and a lightness must also have been given to the structure, by the arrangement of the stones here, not at equal distances, as in the two exterior rows, but in pairs; the intervals between each two pairs being much greater than that between the two stones composing each pair. The uprights of this row have imposts over them, as in the outer circle. One of these imposts is sixteen feet three inches long; of course the imposts here, not forming a continuous architrave, are only five in number. Of the five pairs, or rather trilithons, (that is, combinations of three stones,) although some of the shafts have been injured and mutilated, all are still in their places, except the fifth, or that which faced the entrance: this trilithon fell down on the 3d January, 1797, and the stones now encumber a flat one, of about fifteen feet in length, which lay at their base. Lastly, there appears to have been a fourth enclosure, formed originally (as Stockely thinks) of nineteen stones, but only eleven now remain entire or in fragments. These seem also to have been arranged in the shape of a half-oval, with the open part, as in the case of the other, to the north-east. Although greatly inferior in height to those last described, they are still taller than those of the second circle. The most perfect is seven and a half feet high, and twenty-three inches wide at the base, and twelve at the top. Like the second circle, this row has never had any imposts.

A variety of absurd legends are connected with the origin and purposes of this erection, but it is now universally admitted

that it was a Druidical temple of the ancient Britons. It has also been the subject of wonder how the immense stones came there; — this has been set at rest by Sir R. C. Hoare, who proves that those of the outer circle, and the five trilithons of the grand oval, are of the same kind with those which are found in different parts of the surface of the Wiltshire downs, and are there called *Sarsen Stones*, i. e., stones taken from their native quarry in their rude state — they being a fine-grained species of silicious sandstone. Those forming the smaller circle and the smaller oval, are again quite different. Some are an aggregate of quartz, feldspar, chlorite, and hornblende; one is a silicious schist; others are hornstone, intermixed with small specks of feldspar and pyrites. What is called the altar, being the stone now covered by the centre trilithon, is a micaceous fine-grained sandstone. It is still a matter of speculation by what mechanical power they were placed in their situations. At Avebury, in the same county, there are also some remains of what is supposed to have been the largest Celtic, or Druidical temple in Europe.

The engraving at the head of this article represents the temple of Stonehenge as it must have been when entire.



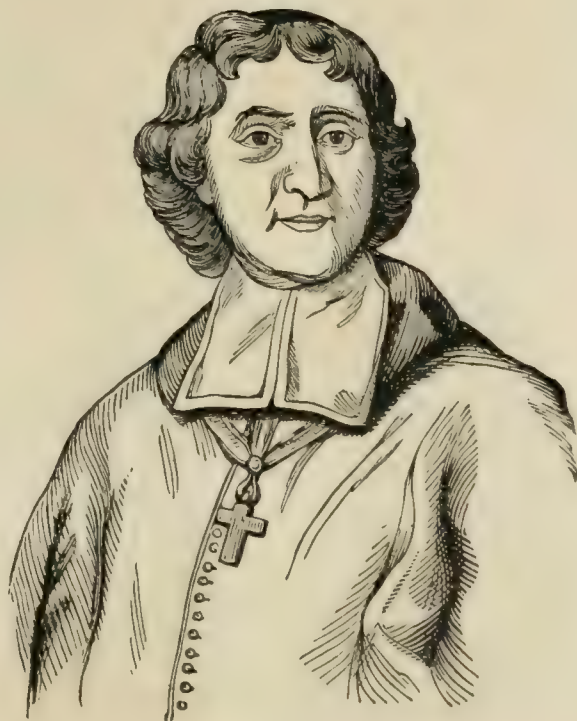
INDIA RUBBER TREE.

INDIA rubber, called *caoutchouc*, is produced from several different trees, all of the genus *ficus*, or fig. The celebrated banyan tree, of India, is a species of *ficus*.

The *ficus elastica* is the tree from which

the India rubber is chiefly obtained. This is a native of both India and South America. When the bark is broken, it gives forth a milky liquid, which, being exposed to the air, produces the gum elastic which is so much in use among us. It is now about a hundred years since it was first introduced into Europe; for a long time it was only

used to erase the marks of lead pencils. The natives of South America had, however, long employed it, as we do now, for boots and shoes. They also smear the inside of baskets with it, thus providing a tough and tight lining. In the vicinity of Quito they make it into a kind of cloth.



FENELON.

Most of our readers have read the beautiful story of *Telemachus*, and we are now going to say a few words about the great and good man who wrote it.

His name was François de Salignac de la Mothe Fénelon. He was of an illustrious family, and born in the year 1651. He was educated for the church; and such was his early display of genius, that, at the age of fifteen, he preached a sermon in the presence of a select assembly at Paris. Such were the praises heaped upon him for his eloquence, that his uncle, fearing the effect of flattery, sent him to the seminary of St. Sulpice, directing him for "several years to imitate the silence of Christ."

When arrived at mature age, Fénelon acquired reputation as a pious minister of the Catholic Church, and was distinguished for the grace and gentleness of his manners and the polished style of his writings. He was now made Archbishop of Cambray by the celebrated Louis XIV.; but soon after, events transpired which caused his temporary disgrace. In those days there was a Madame Guyon, who pretended to some extraordinary religious gifts, and Fénelon believed and defended her mystical pretensions. For this he was assailed by the eloquent and famous Bishop Bossuet, and as he would not retract, he was denounced to the king as a heretic. About the same

time, Fenelon's palace — for he was rich, and lived in a luxurious style — took fire, and all his books and writings were destroyed. The persecution begun by Bossuet was continued, and finally Fenelon was represented to the Pope of Rome as guilty of circulating heretical and dangerous sentiments. It was proposed to Fenelon to retract what he had said, in which case he would have been forgiven; but refusing to do this, he was condemned and severely reprimanded. Subsequently he seems to have admitted his errors, and, with Christian meekness, he read his confession, and the pope's sentence, from his own pulpit!

His subsequent life, though shadowed with a species of disgrace, was marked with the most exemplary piety, charity, meekness,

and devotion. He seemed to live only to do good, and not the humblest individual was beneath his kindly notice. Seldom has there been a life which displayed the Christian character in higher perfection. Fenelon wrote the "Adventures of Telemachus" before the difficulty which we have mentioned. Owing to the unfaithfulness of a servant, it was published; and the king, suspecting it to have some touches aimed at him, was further irritated against the author. It was suppressed in France, but was published in Holland, where it was rapidly and extensively circulated.

Fenelon died in 1715, and, besides his valuable writings, has left behind a rare example of what Christianity may do in perfecting human character.



THE PASSION-FLOWER.

THE plant known to us by the above name belongs to a class common in the tropical parts of America. They are all climbing plants, and often scramble over trees of considerable height. In many cases they are very beautiful, the flowers being large and richly colored. Several of them are valued for the fruit which they yield in their native climes, it being pulpy and refreshing. One species, in Brazil, has fruit as large as a child's head. One kind, in the West Indies, yields what is called the water-lemon. Other species, however, produce fruit which has a very offensive taste and smell.

The name of the passion-flower was given

by the Jesuits of South America, who saw in it an emblem of Christ's death and passion. The five *anthers* represented his wounds; the triple *style*, the nails with which he was fastened to the cross; the *column*, the pillar to which he was bound. A number of fleshy threads, in the flower, betokened the crown of thorns.

We are told that these Jesuits, in addressing the Indians, used this flower as a means of illustrating their account of the crucifixion; thus connecting the solemn event, in their minds, with the beautiful works of nature around them.



THE FRENCH IN EGYPT.

THE expedition of the French army against Egypt was planned by the directory of that country, partly to get rid of Bonaparte, whom they feared, and partly to prepare for attacking the possessions of Great Britain in India. They had no cause of quarrel with Egypt, and therefore it was an act of plunder and robbery, as gross as any ever perpetrated by a burglar or highwayman.

The expedition was fitted out upon a grand scale. It consisted of thirteen sail of the line, with smaller ships of war and transports, comprising a fleet of several hundred sail. In this fleet embarked an army of 28,000 men, and a body of one hundred men of science, liberally supplied with books, philosophical instruments, and all the means of prosecuting researches in every department of knowledge. This is the first body of the kind that ever accompanied an invading army. Bonaparte did not limit his views to those of armed conquest; he meant that these should be ennobled by mingling with them schemes of a literary and scientific character.

On the 18th of May, 1798, the expedition set sail from Toulon. On the 10th of June, they arrived before Malta, which immediately surrendered. A British fleet, under Nelson, was in the Mediterranean, in search of Bonaparte; but, by that good fortune which marked the whole of his early career, he escaped it, and reached the coast of Egypt, near Alexandria, on the 29th of

June. A violent storm prevailed, but Bonaparte, learning that the English fleet had been there only a short time previous, threw himself on the shore, at the risk of being wrecked. The troops were landed, marched all night, and the next morning 3,000 French, harassed with fatigue, destitute of artillery, and with a small supply of ammunition, captured Alexandria. In five days Bonaparte was master of Rosetta and Dammanhour, and had obtained a secure footing in Egypt. He pushed immediately for the interior. Murad Bey, with a large force of cavalry and a flotilla of gunboats on the Nile, attempted to check the advance of the French, but was defeated, and compelled to retreat. After this, they marched for eight days without being molested, except by clouds of Arabs hanging upon their rear; but often reduced to the greatest straits, and under a scorching sun. On the 19th of July, they came in sight of the pyramids.

As they prosecuted their march, they found their difficulties augmenting. Provisions were scarce; they often encamped in immense fields of wheat, but the country afforded neither mill nor oven; and they were compelled to subsist on pulse or parched grain. The general-in-chief and his staff often dined on nothing but a dish of lentils, and no one had a tent to shelter him.

At length they came in sight of the entrenched camp of the enemy, comprising a force of 30,000 men. Here took place what

is called the Battle of the Pyramids, in the beginning of which Bonaparte addressed the soldiers in that striking apostrophe which has been so often quoted: "From the summits of those pyramids, forty centuries look down upon you." The Egyptians were defeated, with the loss of 10,000 men, and their artillery and baggage. Bonaparte made his triumphal entrance into Cairo on the 26th of July.

The city contained a population of about 200,000. The populace, when they heard of the disasters of their own people, had set fire to the houses of the Beys, and committed all sorts of excesses. Bonaparte, on taking possession of Cairo, made every effort to ingratiate himself with the people. He gave strict orders that no insult should be offered to the Mahometan religion. He did not, as has been idly asserted, pretend to be a convert to it; he merely avowed, what he probably felt, a high opinion of its founder, and treated its ceremonies with respect and decorum. General Menou, however, in good earnest, turned Mahometan, and married a lady of Rosetta, whom he treated after the French modes of gallantry and politeness. He gave her his hand to enter the dining-room, the best place at table, and the choicest dishes; if she dropped her handkerchief, he ran to pick it up. She related all these circumstances in the bath of Rosetta, where all the women meet; and they, in hopes of a change in the national manners, signed a petition to Sultan Kabir, or the Fire-king, as they called Bonaparte, that their husbands should be obliged to treat them in the same manner.

The Turkish Sultan, in the mean time, had issued an indignant manifesto, declaring war against France for having invaded one of his provinces, and prepared to send an army for the recovery of Egypt. On the 22d of September, a popular insurrection broke out at Cairo, and great numbers of the French were massacred. Bonaparte, who was absent, returned with troops, suppressed the insurrection, and issued a proclamation, in which, imitating the Oriental style, he told the Egyptians that he was the Man of Fate, who had been foretold in the Koran, and that any resistance to him was impious as well as unavailing, and that he would call them to account even for their most secret thoughts, as nothing was concealed from him. The Turks began to assemble forces in Syria, and Djeddar, the Pacha of that province, was appointed to the command. Bonaparte determined on an expedition to Syria. In February, 1799,

he crossed the desert with ten thousand men, captured El Arish and Gaza, and on the 7th of March he stormed Jaffa, which was bravely defended by several thousand Turks. A summons to surrender had been sent them, but they cut off the head of the messenger. Jaffa was taken and given up to plunder. About twelve hundred of the garrison were found to be Turkish troops made prisoners at El Arish, and who had been liberated on their parole not to bear arms against the French for a year. For this violation of their parole, Bonaparte ordered them all to be shot; a deed which, being grossly misrepresented and exaggerated by the English, was applied with great industry to blacken his character.

The French, who were victorious at every other point, found an insurmountable obstacle to their progress at Acre, which was so resolutely defended by Djeddar, assisted by a body of English sailors, under Sir Sidney Smith, that Bonaparte, finding the siege protracted, and receiving alarming accounts from Egypt, gave over the design, and began his retreat on the 21st of May. This campaign cost him about 4,000 men; but, had he succeeded at Acre, he would have become master of all Syria, and perhaps have threatened Constantinople. He returned to Cairo on the 14th of June. In the mean time, the whole French fleet had been captured or destroyed in the Bay of Aboukir, by Lord Nelson; yet, considering the brilliant successes of the French by land, the reduction of Rosetta, Alexandria, Damiatta, and Cairo, and, above all, the battle of the Pyramids, they had good ground for hope that many of the Arabs might be drawn over to the side of the conquerors. The Jews, as usual, were at the service of the best paymaster, besides the resentment which they must have felt at the treatment they received from the Turks. Among the other inhabitants of Egypt, the Greeks and the Copts, though greatly humbled in their minds and in their fortunes, and the latter debased almost to brutality, by a long series of tyrannical oppressions, might yet be roused, by kinder treatment and better prospects, to a sense of national dignity and freedom. The clouded prospects of Bonaparte were, therefore, on the whole, brightened up by gleams of hope sufficient to call the powers of his active and inventive mind into full exertion.

The Egyptians, by nature a timid and effeminate race, were struck with terror at the first arrival of the French, nor did this feeling rapidly subside. They shut them-

selves up in their houses, and concealed their stores of provisions, so that, for many days, the French were reduced to great straits. But when the apprehensions of the natives were removed by the good discipline of the French, provisions were furnished in the greatest abundance. The Delta was fully sufficient to supply all necessities, which could be conveyed to the French magazines by the Nile or by canals. The old canal that conveyed the waters of the Nile to Alexandria, and other canals, were cleared out and repaired. Windmills were constructed for grinding corn, the only mills known to the natives being hand-mills and a few worked by oxen. The want of wine was supplied by a spirit extracted from dates. At Alexandria and Cairo, boards were instituted for inquiring into the best means for preventing contagious distempers, and for the general preservation of health; the consequence of which was, that the sanitary condition of these cities was much improved. At Cairo, a theatre was established, for the amusement of the French and the astonishment of the Egyptians.

It was easy, however, to see that the French army must necessarily be diminished by the accidents of war, in process of time, unless supplied with fresh recruits. Napoleon, therefore, in imitation of the Romans, and of Alexander the Great, whose examples were still before him, determined to range under his standard the inhabitants of the country, which, as yet, he had rather overrun, in part, than conquered. He allured into his service, by liberal pay, bodies of Arabs and Greeks, and even a company of Janizaries. An incident, which happened long after, may serve to show the impression he made on all around him, and even on fierce, barbaric minds. Twenty years subsequent to this period, Doctor Antommarchi, on a voyage to visit Napoleon, then a captive and dying at St. Helena, came in sight of Cape Palmas, on the western coast of Africa. The vessel kept near the shore, and presently a number of canoes were seen making towards her. They were light, swift, narrow, and low, managed by men squatting down, who struck the sea with their nanas and glided over its surface. A wave or flaw of wind upset them, but, nimble as the fishes, they instantly turned their canoes upward and pursued their course. The vessel took in sail, and they were soon alongside. They brought provisions, which the crew received with thanks.

"Where are you going?" asked one of the Africans.

"To Saint Helena," was the answer.

This name struck him, and he remained some time motionless. At length he said in a dejected tone,

"To Saint Helena?—Is it true that *he* is there?"

"Who?" demanded the captain.

"The African cast a look of disdain at him," says Antommarchi, "came to us, and repeated the question. We replied that he *was* there. He looked at us, shook his head, and at length replied, 'Impossible!' We gazed at one another, wondering who this savage could be, who spoke English and French, and had so high an idea of Napoleon."

"You knew him, then?" we returned.

"Long ago."

"You have seen him?"

"In all his glory."

"And often?"

"In Cairo, the well defended city,—in the desert,—in the field of battle."

"You do not believe in his misfortunes."

"His arm is strong; his tongue sweet as honey; nothing can resist him; for a long time he has opposed all Europe. Not all Europe, nor the world, can overcome such a man. The Mamelukes and the Pachas were eclipsed before him,—he is the god of battles. Napoleon cannot be at Saint Helena!"

"His misfortunes are but too certain. Exhaustion—disaffection—plots—"

"All vanished at his sight; a single word repaid us for all our fatigues; our wishes were satisfied; we feared nothing from the moment that we saw him."

"Have you fought under him?"

"I had been wounded at Coptos, and was sent back into Lower Egypt. I was at Cairo when Mustapha appeared on the coast. The army marched. I followed its movements, and was present at Aboukir. What precision! What an eye! What brilliant charges! It is impossible that Napoleon has been conquered,—that he is at Saint Helena!"

Napoleon, while in Egypt, caused strict justice to be practised between man and man. He gave free passage and protection to the pilgrims going to and from Mecca and encouraged all kinds of commerce to the predial slaves he gave land, to be cultivated on their own account. He granted equal rights of inheritance to all the children of the same parents; and improved the condition of women, by giving them a certain portion of their husbands' property at their decease. He encouraged marriage

between his soldiers and the natives, and endeavored to restrain polygamy. He established schools for the instruction of the young French, Copts, and Arabs, in French, Arabic, geography, and mathematics. He was a friend to public shows, games, and other diversions; in all which he labored to induce the French and the natives to mingle together. During the Syrian campaign, General Dessaix had driven the Mamelukes from Upper Egypt and beyond the cataracts of Assouan. Dessaix's army contained the French scientific corps, and Denon among the rest, who explored the monuments of Thebes, Dendera, Edfu, &c. The effect produced upon the army by suddenly coming in sight of the ruins of Thebes, was that of admiration and wonder. From the observations of Denon and his associates, a most magnificent work on Egypt was afterwards compiled, and published at the expense of the French government.

What would have been the destiny of

Egypt, had Napoleon remained longer in that country, it is difficult to conjecture; but in the latter part of July, 1797, the Turks landed an army of 18,000 men at Aboukir, the defeat of which closed his Egyptian campaign. Immediately after this victory, he received such intelligence of the state of affairs in France as induced him to return without delay. He accordingly embarked at Alexandria, on the 18th of August, and arrived in France on the 9th of October. General Kleber was left in command; but, being assassinated by one of the natives, his authority devolved upon General Menou. In 1801, the British sent an expedition to Egypt, under General Abercrombie, to drive out the French. It is unnecessary to detail the military events of this campaign further than to say, that they succeeded in their object, and in the summer of the same year Egypt was restored to the government of the Pacha.



THE MULE.

THE mule is a mongrel quadruped, showing a resemblance both to the horse and the ass. It is the offspring of a horse and she-ass, or an ass and mare. By the immutable law of nature, and the wise appointment of God, mules can have no descendants.

Mules are of great antiquity, and were known in the days of David. In their disposition they are rather vicious, intractable, and obstinate. They are remarkably hardy, sure-footed, and able to endure great fatigue.

The finest mules are produced in Spain, and many of them are fifteen or sixteen hands high. They are much hardier than horses, and sometimes surpass them in strength. They are less subject to disease, and will live and work to twice the age of a horse. They are particularly useful in mountainous countries, and in rocky, stony ways. Therefore they are much used on the Alps and Pyrenees. From the medals of Julia and Agrippina, it appears that the Roman ladies

had chariots drawn by mules. David and his sons rode upon mules; (2 Sam. xiii. 29.) "Then all the king's sons arose, and every man gat him up upon his mule, and fled." Solomon rode upon a mule at his coronation. King Ahab had great numbers of them. The Jews, in their return from Babylon, had two hundred and forty-five of them for bearing their furniture. (Ezra ii.) This must have been a sight peculiarly interesting. The Persians used them for their posts to ride on. (Esther viii. 10.) In Ezek. xxvii. 14, we find that the Tyrians

bought great numbers of them from the people of Tagarmah.

The mule is little used in the United States, except at the south, where they are common. They are much used in Mexico and South America. It is said that the late John Randolph, when at Washington, saw a drove of mules going from Connecticut to be sold at the south. Randolph said to Hillhouse, senator from Connecticut, — "See! there are some of your constituents." "Yes," said Hillhouse, "they are going to be school-masters in Virginia!"



MAHOMET.

MAHOMET, or, according to the orthography and pronunciation of the orientals, Mohammed, (the *Glorified*,) surnamed Aboul Cassem, the founder of the Arabic empire, and of the religion to which he gave his name, was born at Mecca, on the tenth of November, 570 A. D., according to the most probable opinion.

He was of the tribe of the Korashites, the noblest and the most powerful of the country. He lost his father before he was two years old, and his mother before he was eight, but their affectionate attention was supplied by the care of his uncle, Abu Taleb, a merchant. In the family of this friendly protector, he was employed to travel with his camels, between Mecca and Syria, till his twenty-fifth year, when he entered into the service of Cadiga, a rich widow, whom, though twelve years older than himself, he married three years after. Thus suddenly raised to affluence and consequence above his countrymen, he formed the secret plan of obtaining for himself the

sovereign power; and judging there was no way so likely to gain his end as by effecting a change in the religion of his countrymen, he adopted that as his instrument.

He now spent much of his time alone in a cave near Mecca, employed, as he gave out, in meditation and prayer, though it is said that in reality he called to his aid a Persian Jew, well versed in the history and laws of his sect, and two Christians, one of the Jacobite and the other of the Nestorian sect. With the help of these men he framed his *Koran*, or the book which he pretended to have received at different times from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel.

At the age of forty, he publicly assumed the prophetic character, calling himself the apostle of God! His disciples were at first very few, consisting only of his wife, nephew, and servant, but in the course of three years he had greatly increased the number of his followers. On these he imposed tales but too well adapted to deceive ignorant and superstitious minds.

He pretended to have passed into the highest heavens in one night, on the back of a beautiful ass, called al Borak, and accompanied by the angel Gabriel! that he there had an interview with Adam, Abranam, Moses, and Jesus Christ, who acknowledged his superiority, which was confirmed to him by the Deity himself! This romance staggered even some of his best friends, and a powerful party being formed against him, he was forced to quit Mecca, and to seek refuge in Medina. This expulsion dates the foundation of his empire, and of his religion. The Mohammedans adopt it as their chronological era, calling it the *Hegira*, being the 16th day of July, A. D. 622.

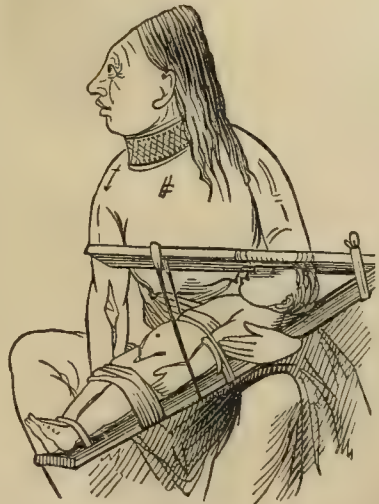
Mahomet had still a number of disciples, upon whom he inculcated the principle, that they were not to dispute for their religion by words, but by the sword. No doctrine could possibly be better suited to a lawless and wandering people; it was soon carried into practice, and the Jewish Arabs were the first to experience its effects. Upon them Mahomet committed the most shocking cruelties; numbers were put to death, others were sold for slaves, and their goods distributed among the soldiers.

A faith, thus propagated, could not but succeed in a country like Arabia. His adherents were not only rewarded by plunder here, but had held out to them a felicity of the most sensual kind hereafter. In 627, Mahomet made a treaty with the inhabitants of Mecca, which within two years he violated, and captured the place. Having made himself master of Arabia, he extended his conquests into Syria, where he took several cities, and laid some of the princes under tribute. His career was stopped only by his death, which was supposed to be occasioned by poison, administered to him by a Jewess, and sprinkled on a shoulder of mutton, of which the prophet partook with a high relish. When the woman was examined, she declared that she had perpetrated the deed, on purpose to try whether he was a true prophet; an answer somewhat remarkable, as the innoxiousness of poison was one of the privileges promised by our Lord to his disciples. The poison is said to have taken effect three years after it had been administered!

When he found himself dying, Mahomet caused himself to be supported to the mosque, where he celebrated the praise of God, demanded pardon for his sins, and then, mounting his throne, said: "If any one complaineth that I have stricken him unjustly, — lo! here is my back, let him

return the blows. If I have injured the reputation of any one, let him treat me in the same manner. If I have taken money from any one, I am here, ready to restore it." His last words were, "Lord, pardon me; and place me among those whom thou hast raised to grace and favor." He died on the 8th of June, A. D. 632, having lived sixty-three years.

He was of small stature, and of a sanguine temperament. He had a large head, regular and decided features; his eyes were large, black, and full of fire; his forehead was large, his nose aquiline, his cheeks full, and his mouth large. His teeth were white, but set a little apart from each other, and between his eyebrows was a vein, which swelled when he was in anger. Notwithstanding his corpulency, his gait was easy and graceful. After the death of Cadiga, he had several wives and concubines, by whom he had many children, but left only one daughter, named Fatima, who married his successor Ali, having lived to see his doctrines and his power extended over Arabia, Syria, and Persia.



THE FLAT-HEAD INDIANS.

ON the western slope of the Rocky Mountains, and along the banks of the Columbia river, there is a tribe of Indians, called Chinooks, who have the custom of flattening the foreheads of their children, in the manner represented in the engraving. The face of the mother shows how the head looks when it has undergone this process in infancy.

It might seem that this were a painful process, but it is done when the child is very young, and he is early accustomed to the pressure. The little creature, in his cradle, looks as if in a coffin; and here he is often kept, strapped to a board, for several weeks, only the lower part being taken off during that time. When the mother is on a journey, she carries the child and cradle on her back, they being supported by a strap passing over her forehead.

What can have been the origin of this strange custom, it is impossible to conceive; but probably it is founded on fashion only. The fancy of the Chinese for small feet is equally absurd, and leads to even more pernicious results.

But, however the custom may have originated, flattening the head has been very extensively practised among the American savages. There is a tribe called Flat-Heads, which inhabit the upper western slopes of the Rocky Mountains, and derive their name from this custom, though it is now little used among them. The Choc-taws and Chickasaws, which were formerly large tribes, and occupied a considerable portion of the present States of Mississippi and Alabama, were anciently accustomed to flatten the head in the manner above described; and several South American tribes have long had the same practice among them.



SALADIN.

SALADIN, or Salaheddin Yusef Ben Ayub, was at first general of the army of Nouredin, Sultan of Damascus, and in 1164 he conquered Egypt, and married the widow of the Prince of Grand Cairo.

After the death of Nouredin, he was called to the government, during the minor-

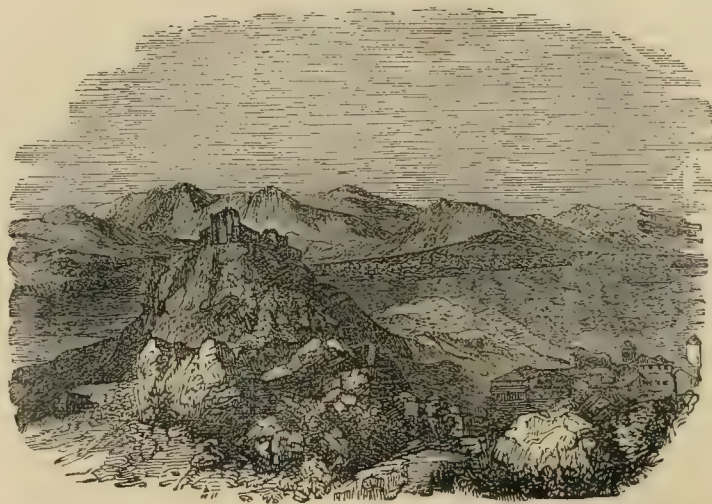
ity of the prince, his son. Being advanced to this power, he resolved to attack the Christians; and accordingly, in 1177, having raised an army, he endeavored to surprise Jerusalem, but was defeated, with great slaughter, on the twenty-fifth of November. This loss inspiring him with revenge, in

1180 he passed the Euphrates, took several cities as far as Nisibis, and made himself formidable to all his neighbors. He took Aleppo in 1184. But not long after, the Christians put a stop to his conquests by a cessation of arms. The Earl of Tripoli, being jealous of Guy, King of Jerusalem, persuaded Saladin to break the truce; who, following his counsel, defeated the Christians, the first of May, 1187; and having raised an army of above eight hundred thousand men, he obtained another victory over them, took Guy in the flight, beheaded all the knights-templars, and of St. John, made himself master of Acre, Bairut, Giblet, Saide, and many other places, and at last of Jerusalem.

Pope Urban II., upon hearing of this news, died of grief. Saladin several times stormed the city of Tyre, but was as often repulsed; and after some other losses sustained from the Christians, he died in 1193, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, having reigned over

Egypt twenty-two years, and nineteen as absolute master of Syria.

No Asiatic monarch has filled so large a space in the eyes of Europe as the antagonist of Cœur de Lion. He was a compound of the dignity and baseness, the greatness and the littleness, of man. As a Moslem hero of the third holy war, he proved himself a skilful general and a valiant soldier. He hated the Christian cause, for he was a zealous Mussulman. He gained the throne by blood, artifice, and treachery; but though ambitious, he was not tyrannical; he was mild in his government; the friend and dispenser of justice. Wars and rebellions filled all the thoughts of Saladin, and he established no principles of succession. Three of his numerous progeny became sovereigns of Aleppo, Damascus, and Egypt; others had smaller possessions; and the emirs and atabaks of Syria again struggled for independence.



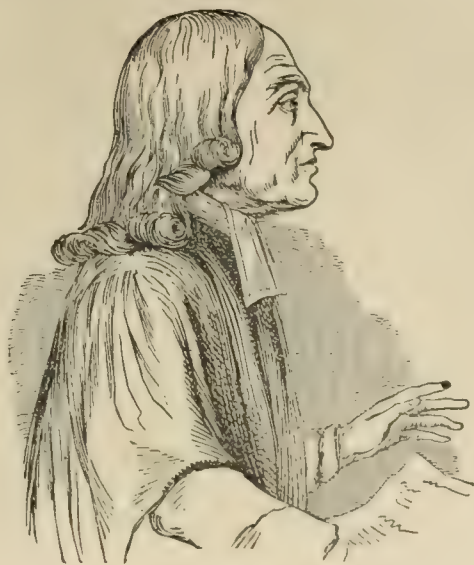
THE AREOPAGUS.

THE Areopagus was a court of ancient Athens, situated on an eminence called *Mars Hill*. This was nearly in the centre of the city, but it is now a heap of ruins.

The court of Areopagus was an august tribunal, which took cognizance of murders, impieties, and immoralities. They punished vices of all kinds, even idleness, and rewarded piety and virtue. The judges held their office for life. They sat in the open air, and only in the night-time, that their

minds might not be disturbed by surrounding objects.

It was before this court that St. Paul was summoned, in consequence of preaching against the established religion,—that of Jupiter and the other heathen gods. In his defence, he spoke with such power as to convert Dionysius, one of the judges, to the faith of the Gospel. (See Acts xvii. 34.)



JOHN WESLEY.

THE Reverend John Wesley, founder of the religious sect called Methodists, was one of the most remarkable men of modern times; and his life is exceedingly interesting and instructive, as showing not only how much good a man can do, but what an immense amount of labor can be performed, by diligence and devotion, in a lifetime. We cannot give an extended account of Mr. Wesley's history, but we will endeavor to do something towards exciting an interest which may lead to further reading on the subject.

John Wesley was the son of an Episcopal clergyman of Epworth, England, and was born in 1703. He was of a family distinguished for talent; and two of his brothers, Charles and Samuel, were eminent men, the first as a Methodist preacher, and the latter as a musician.

John Wesley was educated for the church, and took orders as a priest in the Episcopal Church of England. While still a young man, and officiating at Oxford, he joined a society of pious young men attached to the university, who met often for prayer; gave all the money they could spare in charity; spent a great deal of their time in religious meditation and self-examination, and in visiting the sick and suffering. Such conduct, so different from the common course of the selfish and worldly mass around them, excited great ridicule, and drew upon them the titles of the Holy Club, the Bible Moths, the Bitter Bigots, the Methodists, &c.

Among these pious young men was George Whitefield, afterwards celebrated for his wonderful eloquence, and who shares with Wesley the honor of having founded the Methodist sect. He paid several visits to America, and finally died at Newburyport, Massachusetts, where his tomb may still be seen.

It has frequently happened that a name bestowed in scorn has become one of honorable renown, and so it happened now. The term *Methodist*, invented to ridicule Wesley and his associates, has been converted by those who first received the title into the designation of one of the most extended, efficient, and evangelical of the religious associations of Christendom.

About this time, General Oglethorpe was preparing to set out, with a large number of persons, to establish a colony in Georgia. John Wesley, having taken holy orders, joined Oglethorpe's expedition, in order to preach to the settlers and Indians, and accordingly arrived in the Savannah river, in 1736. Here he remained but about a year, having been involved in troubles, it is said by his friends, through the intrigues of the governor.

On his arrival in England, in 1738, he found that Methodism had already made great progress in London, Bristol, and other places, through the enthusiastic preaching of Whitefield. Wesley, however, joined the Moravians; and soon after, according to his own account, being at a meeting of

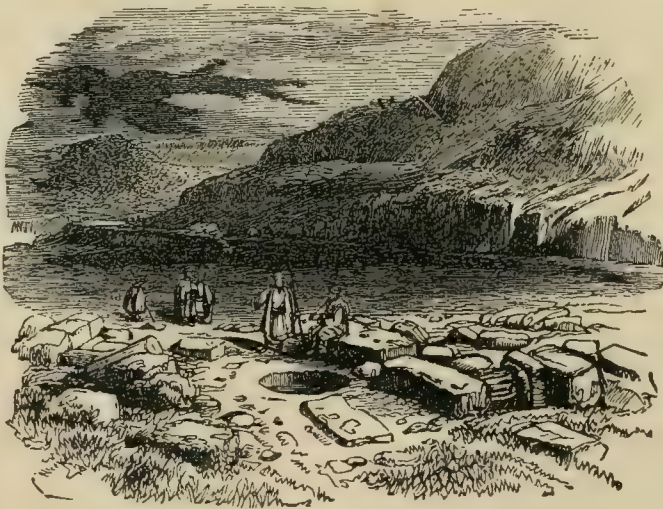
that sect, in Aldersgate street, he met with a spiritual change of heart. He now travelled in various parts of Germany, especially with a view to visit the Moravian churches there. Returning to England, he joined Whitefield, and from this time his labors were devoted to the extension and establishment of Methodism.

Whitefield had set the example of "field preaching," hitherto unpractised. Immense crowds flocked to hear him, and Wesley now adopted the same course. Soon after, "lay preaching," that is, preaching or exhorting by persons not ordained, was sanctioned by Wesley; and thus the bonds, which had hitherto held him to the Church of England, were regarded as sundered. Soon after, he formally separated himself from the Moravians; and from this time to the end of his life, he may be considered as the head of the Methodists, as a distinct sect.

No man ever gave himself to any cause with more entire devotion than did Wesley to that of the new church, from this time

forward. He wrote books; he travelled from place to place; he preached, he prayed, he exhorted, with a zeal and fervor, which nothing could hinder or abate. His skill and wisdom seemed equal to his ardor. Not an hour, scarce a minute, could be abstracted from the cause on which he had set his heart. He rested nowhere; he almost constantly rode from forty to sixty miles a day on horseback; he read and wrote at every stopping-place; and generally preached from three to five times a day, often to assembled thousands.

Never was there a life of greater activity or devotion, and seldom has bodily power so wonderfully borne out the zeal and energy of the soul. Wesley continued his labors to the age of eighty-seven, when he died at London. His fame is sufficiently attested by the extent and character of the religion which he matured. His writings are numerous, among which, perhaps, the most interesting is a journal, or diary, which he kept for upwards of sixty years.



JACOB'S WELL.

THE site of this fountain, spoken of in the fourth chapter of John, is supposed to be ascertained, and here a church was formerly erected. At one period it was visited by various pilgrims, it being the spot where our Saviour revealed himself to the woman of Samaria. The description of the place, in the chapter above alluded to, is so particular, as to render it easy to iden-

tify the spot. It is near the ancient town of Shechem, about forty miles south of Jerusalem. Though the place now presents a scene of ruins, yet the fountain is there, and the scene is an object of interest to every traveller, especially to the Christian, who, standing here, seems to realize one of the most interesting events recorded in the Gospels.



LAFAYETTE.

THIS great and good man was born in Auvergne, in France, in 1757. His family was rich and noble, and he was brought up in the fashionable style of the French court. But his heart was not rendered corrupt by his course of life. When he was about 21 years of age, he heard that the American people were striving to throw off the yoke of British power, and his noble heart sympathized with them.

He therefore determined to come to America, and assist the people in their contest for liberty. He was so carefully watched, that it was difficult for him to get away; but, after some difficulties, he set sail with some friends, and landed in South Carolina. From thence he went to Philadelphia, and offered his services to Congress, who immediately gave him a commission as general. From this time he served in our army, and was aid to Washington. He was at the famous siege of Yorktown, in October, 1780, when Lord Cornwallis, and his army of 7000 men, were captured.

Lafayette returned to France, and he took an active part in the early stages of the French revolution. But a plot was formed against his life, and he fled. In Germany he was taken, and confined for several years in the gloomy dungeons of Olmutz. He was liberated at last, and in 1824 he came to this country, where he was joyously received. He returned to France, and took a lead in the great revolution of July, 1830. Having placed Louis Philippe upon the

throne, and secured a constitution to the nation, he retired to private life—serving, however, as deputy in the French House of Commons. In 1834 he died, leaving behind him the name of one of the purest and noblest characters that has ever lived.



OTHO, KING OF GREECE.

ABOUT thirty years ago, the Greeks, who had been long held in bondage by the Turks, rose in rebellion, and fought bravely for their

liberty. The war raged in valley and mountain, and many a city and village was laid in ashes. The poor Greeks — men, women, and children — were hunted like wild animals, and often saved themselves only by retreat to inaccessible cliffs and caverns. But the spirit of liberty at last triumphed, and the Turks were driven out of the country.

But a curious event now took place. In June, 1833, a young man, named Otho, son of the King of Bavaria, was agreed upon as the sovereign of Greece! He was not yet

of age; but he went to his new kingdom, and, in 1838, being twenty-one, he was regularly acknowledged and crowned as king. Since that time, Otho has been King of Greece; and though he has had some troubles to contend with, the country has since remained pretty quiet. The young king has occasionally shown a disposition to usurp more power than belongs to him; but the Greeks seem to know their rights, and to be determined to maintain them.



THE CRUCIFIXION.

THIS great event, which was signalized, at the time, by convulsions of nature, as if the very elements were shaken with terror at the deed, has marked itself more deeply on the memory and feelings of mankind than almost any other within the whole scope of history. An execution upon the cross was a Roman punishment, inflicted for robbery, assassination, and rebellion, and was esteemed not only one of the most cruel, but one of the most ignominious, that could be adopted. It was because he declared himself the Messiah, or King, that Jesus was accused and executed as a rebel; and it was in ridicule of his pretensions that the scoffing multitude cried out, "Hail, King of the Jews!" — and that the inscription, "This is Jesus, King of the Jews," was put over his cross.

It is not possible to conceive a spectacle more humiliating, more agonizing. How few of those who took part in the revolting

scene comprehended the real character of that fearful drama! and how little did they foresee the results that were to follow in its train! Who can go back, in imagination, and picture the throng around, rejoicing to see the agonies of the sufferer, and taunting his distress with jeers and gibes, and saying, "If thou be the Son of God, save thyself, and come down from the cross!" and can listen to his sublime reply — "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do!" and not feel that men, women, and children, who could act thus, were indeed lost, and stood in fearful need of a Saviour — one who could redeem them from hardness of heart and blindness of mind?

There are two reflections which this subject may well impress upon our minds. The first is, the incalculable value of that atonement which Christ thus made for the sins of mankind. It is to his example, his sufferings, his death, that the human race not

only owe their hopes of salvation in an after-life, but even the every-day pleasures and virtues of refined society. If Christ had not lived and died; had he not sealed his lessons with his blood; mankind had doubtless, to this day, been, like the Jews at Calvary, hard-hearted, cruel, unjust—blind to the beauty of holiness, goodness, and truth. We must therefore remember that to Him—to the costly sacrifice of the cross—we are daily indebted for the peace and happiness which we enjoy in a Christian community.

The second reflection which the crucifixion may well establish in our minds is this—that goodness is greatness; that virtue is mighty, and can triumph over power, and cruelty, and scorn; can convert the crown of thorns into a crown of glory; can render an ignominious death a scene of triumph; and convert the despised instrument of death into an emblem of the highest hopes and fondest wishes of humanity.



BETHESDA.

THIS place was rendered very interesting to all Christians by the miracle performed there by our Saviour, which is recorded in the fifth chapter of St. John. Multitudes of pilgrims and travellers have, from age to age, flocked to Jerusalem, eager to see the place where Jesus bade the impotent man, "rise, take up his bed, and walk."

The pool of Bethesda is described as a "pool by the sheep market, which is called Bethesda, having five porches;" the word Bethesda meaning the place where victims for sacrifice were purified. It is believed that the sheep for sacrifice were washed in Bethesda before being led away to the temple; and as sacrifices were very frequently offered, it is natural to suppose that both the sheep market and the pool were near the temple. Another explanation is that it signifies the "House of Mercy," from the healing quality of its waters.

Within the present walls of Jerusalem are two fountains; the lower one, into which the waters of the upper one flow, through a

passage cut in the rock, is the celebrated pool or fountain of Siloam. There has always existed a tradition that the waters of Siloam flowed irregularly. Dr. Robinson, who visited it, says "that as he was standing on the lower step near the water, with one foot on a loose stone lying near it, all at once he perceived the water coming into his shoe, and, supposing the stone had rolled, he withdrew his foot to the step, which, however, was now also covered with water. In less than five minutes the water bubbled up from under the lower step, and in five minutes more it had risen nearly a foot in the basin, and it could be heard gurgling off through the interior passage. In ten minutes it ceased to flow, and the water was again reduced to its former level.

"Meanwhile, a woman came to wash at the fountain. She frequented the place every day, and said that the water flowed at irregular intervals, sometimes being quite dry, the men and flocks dependent upon it suffering from thirst, when, all at once, the

water would boil up from under the steps, and flow in a copious stream. The ignorant people say that a dragon lies within the fountain; when he awakes, he stops the water; when he sleeps, it flows."

In the scriptural account, we are told that

"an angel went down, at a certain season, into the pool, and troubled the waters," and then, whosoever first stepped in was made whole. Does not this "troubling of the waters," look like the irregular flow of the fountain just described?



MIGRATION OF BIRDS.

In the latter part of the month of March, or early in April, we see flocks of wild geese, and wild ducks, high in the air, and drawn out in harrow-shaped lines, making their way to the far regions of the north. These birds spend the winter in southern climates, and, as spring returns, they wend their way to the borders of the great lakes, and other shores of British America, and there, in the solitudes, undisturbed by man, they lay their eggs, and hatch and rear their young. When winter approaches, they gather in flocks, and seek a southern clime.

This habit of migrating from north to south, and again from south to north, with the change of the seasons, is by no means confined to water-fowl. Most birds are migratory; and the instinct they display, in thus changing their abodes, has long excited the admiration of the naturalist.

Many attempts have been made to explain the conduct of birds, in their periodical migrations; but it seems that they are chiefly guided by an instinct, furnished by their Creator, and which answers all the purposes of chart and compass, so needed by the human voyager. Mr. Nuttall says, "Superficial observers, substituting their own ideas for facts, are ready to conclude, and fre-

quently assert, that the old and young, before leaving, assemble together for mutual departure. This may be true, in many instances; but, in as many more, a different arrangement obtains. The young, often instinctively vagrant, herd together in separate flocks previous to their departure, and, guided alone by the innate monition of nature, seek neither the aid nor the company of the old; consequently, in some countries, flocks of young of particular species are alone observed, and in others, far distant, we recognize the old. From parental aid, the juvenile company have obtained all that nature intended to bestow — existence and education; and they are now thrown upon the world, among their numerous companions, with no other necessary guide than self-preserving instinct. In Europe, it appears that these bands of the young always affect even a warmer climate than the old; the aëration of their blood not being yet complete, they are more sensible to the rigors of cold.

"The habitudes and extent of the migrations of birds admit of considerable variety. Some only fly before the inundating storms of winter, and return with the first dawn of spring; these do not leave the continent,

and only migrate in quest of food, when it actually begins to fail. Among these may be named our common song sparrow, chip-ping sparrow, blue-bird, robin, pewee, cedar-bird, black-bird, meadow-lark, and many more. Others pass into warmer climates in the autumn, after rearing their young. Some are so given to wandering, that their choice of a country is only regulated by the resources which it offers for subsistence; such are the pigeons, herons of several kinds, snipes, wild geese and ducks, the wandering albatross, and waxen chattering.

"The greater number of birds travel in the night; some species, however, proceed only by day, as the diurnal birds of prey, crows, pies, wrens, creepers, cross-bills, larks, blue-birds, swallows, and some others. Those which travel wholly in the night are the owls, butcher-birds, king-fishers, thrushes, fly-catchers, night-hawks, whip-poor-wills, and also a great number of aquatic birds, whose motions are often principally nocturnal, except in the cold and desolate northern regions, where they usually retire to breed. Other birds are so powerfully impelled by this governing motive to migration, that they stop neither day nor night; such are the herons, motacillas, plovers, swans, cranes, wild geese, storks, &c.

"When untoward circumstances render haste necessary, certain kinds of birds, which ordinarily travel only in the night, continue their route during the day, and scarcely allow themselves time to eat; yet the singing birds, properly so called, never migrate by day, whatever may happen to them. Some birds, while engaged in their journey, still find means to live without halting; the swallow, while traversing the sea, pursues its insect prey, those who can subsist on fish, without any serious effort, feed as they pass or graze the surface of the deep. If the wren, the creeper, and the titmouse, rest for an instant on a tree, to snatch a hasty morsel, in the next they are on the wing, to fulfil their destination. However abundant may be the nourishment which presents itself to supply their wants, in general birds of passage rarely remain more than two days together in a place.

"The cries of many birds, while engaged in their aerial voyage, are such as are only heard on this important occasion, and appear necessary for the direction of those which fly in assembled ranks.

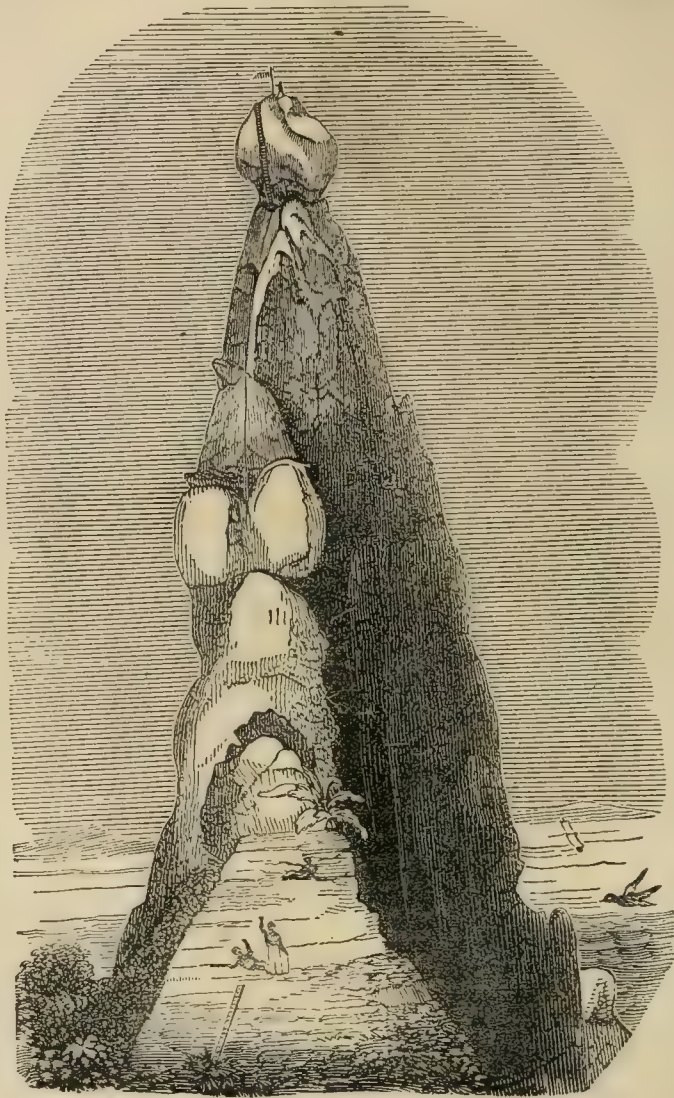
"During these migrations, it has been observed that birds fly, ordinarily, in the higher regions of the air, except when fogs force them to seek a lower elevation. This

habit is particularly prevalent with wild geese, storks, cranes, and herons, which often pass at such a height as to be scarcely distinguishable.

"We shall not here enter into any detailed description of the manner in which each species conducts its migration, but shall content ourselves with citing the single remarkable example of the motions of the cranes. Of all migrating birds, these appear to be endowed with the greatest share of foresight. They never undertake a journey alone; throughout a circle of several miles, they appear to communicate the intention of commencing their route.

"Several days previous to their departure, they call upon each other by a peculiar cry, as if giving warning to assemble at a central point: the favorable moment being at length arrived, they betake themselves to flight, and, in military style, fall into two lines, which, uniting at the summit, form an extended angle, with two equal sides. At the central point of the phalanx, the chief takes his station, to whom the whole troop, by their subordination, appear to have pledged their obedience. The commander has not only the painful task of breaking the path through the air, but he has also the charge of watching for the common safety; to avoid the attacks of birds of prey; to range the two lines in a circle, at the approach of a tempest, in order to resist with more effect the squalls which menace the dispersion of the linear ranks; and, lastly, it is to their leader that the fatigued company look up to appoint the most convenient places for nourishment and repose. Still, important as is the station or function of the aerial director, its existence is but momentary.

"As soon as he feels sensible of fatigue, he cedes his place to the next in the file, and retires himself to its extremity. During the night, their flight is attended with considerable noise; the loud cries which we hear seem to be the marching orders of the chief, answered by the ranks who follow his commands. Wild geese, and several kinds of ducks, also make their aerial voyage nearly in the same manner as the cranes. The loud call of the passing geese, as they soar securely through the higher regions of the air, is familiar to all; but as an additional proof of their sagacity and caution we may remark that, when fogs in the atmosphere render their flight necessarily low, they steal along in silence, as if aware of the danger to which their lower path now exposes them."



PETER BOTTE'S MOUNTAIN.

THE island of Mauritius lies in the Indian Ocean, east of Madagascar. It is about one hundred and forty miles in circuit, and produces rice, sugar, cloves, indigo, and various fruits. The Dutch first settled it, but the French gained possession of it in 1715. In 1810, the English took it, and as John Bull rarely gives up what he has once got, they hold it still.

The island seems to have been thrown up from the sea by volcanic convulsions. In the centre are wild craggy summits, always

covered with snow. Among them is a peak, eighteen hundred feet high, surrounded by dismal ravines. This peak is called *Peter Botte's Mountain*, from a legend that a man of that name once ascended to the top. The general belief is, however, that it was never scaled till 1832, when the top was reached by a party under Capt. Lloyd, an English engineer. The exploit was one of the most hazardous ever undertaken, and the account of it is almost painful, from the evident peril of the adventurers.



TAOU-KWANG, EMPEROR OF CHINA.

THIS monarch of the Celestial Empire, named *Taou-Kwang*, is a grandson of Kien-Long, who was many years emperor, and was famed for his wisdom and benevolence. He succeeded his profligate father, Kea-King, in 1820, having been preferred to an elder brother, for having saved his father's life when he was attacked by assassins.

Nothing can seem more absurd than the pompous proclamations of these Chinese emperors. The following passage from *Taou-Kwang's* message, when he came to the throne, will serve as a specimen :

"My sacred and indulgent father had, in the year that he began to rule alone, silently settled that the divine utensil, the throne, should devolve on my contemptible person. I, knowing the feebleness of my virtue, at first felt much afraid I should not be competent to the office ; but, on reflecting that

the sages, my ancestors, have left to posterity their plans ; that his late majesty has laid the duty on me ; and that heaven's throne should not be long vacant, — I have done violence to my feelings, and forced myself to intermit awhile my heartfelt grief, that I may with reverence obey the unalterable decree ; and on the 27th of the 8th moon, (October 3d,) I purpose devoutly to announce the event to heaven, to the earth, to my ancestors, and to the gods of the land and of the grain, and shall then sit down on the imperial throne. Let the next year be the first of *Taou-Kwang*."

The reign of this emperor has not been marked with any great events, except the war with Great Britain, which is likely, however, to lead to important results. *Taou-Kwang* has several sons ; his fourth, whom he has named as his successor, was born in 1831.



M. DUCORNET.

WE here present an excellent likeness of M. Ducornet, who must be considered as one of the most wonderful men now living. He is, absolutely, without hands or arms, and is yet an excellent portrait and historical painter!

This person was born, destitute as we have above described him, at Lille, in France, Jan. 10, 1806. His infancy was marked with debility, and he never reached a greater height than three feet six inches. He had a natural taste for painting, and being admitted to the drawing school at Lille, by Watley, nephew of the great artist—he made rapid improvement and obtained several medals for his performances. His success became known to M. Girard, the re-

nowned artist, who placed him in the atelier of Lethiers at Paris, where he was kindly cherished by master and pupils.

Charles X., a good judge of painting and a kind-hearted man, put poor Ducornet upon the civil list, with a pension of 1200 francs, (\$240.) He was soon admitted to the Academy Royal of Paris, and was commissioned to paint large pictures, such as *St. Louis rendering Justice at Vincennes*, eight feet by five feet, &c. He soon acquired a high rank, and is now (1849) in the full career of success. He has a large atelier, and it is truly marvellous to observe him at his work.

In painting he uses his mouth as well as his feet, which have small, short legs, set upon

his body. Mounted upon a high ladder, you see him with his brush in his mouth, his palette in his left foot, and half a dozen brushes in his right foot, working away with a vigor, fire, and effect, altogether amazing.

He prefers portraits, and has a peculiar felicity in graceful subjects. He writes neatly, mends his own pens, cut his crayons, charges his palette with colors, and during these various occupations, if a person is present, he sustains an animated conversation, gesticulating with his feet, which have all the expression of other people's hands. These he never uses for walking, as this would destroy their sensibility.

His head is fine — and well placed on his

shoulders; his eyes are brilliant, his brow high, his breast full, his voice sweet, yet sonorous. His whole aspect bespeaks a happy temperament, a lively mind, and a benevolent spirit. A stranger is at first painfully affected by a spectacle of such privation; but this is succeeded by admiration of the gifts by which Providence has repaired the loss. Born, as it might seem, to a life of misery and degradation, Ducornet, through his talents, his genius and his noble heart, is rendered an honored and admired member of society. Even more than this — he is the support and pride of his aged parents, who, but for him, had lingered in poverty.



THE ALLIGATOR.

THIS formidable reptile resembles the crocodile of the eastern continent. There are four species, which are natives of the warm parts of America.

Alligators are ugly animals, but they are not naturally ferocious; they kill only to eat, and only one animal at a time. They swallow their prey nearly whole, breaking the bones by the pressure of their jaws. They are indolent animals; for, though they can walk tolerably fast, and swim faster, the greater part of their time is spent in inaction. During the heat of the day, they lie stretched out on the banks, or in the mud of the rivers, and capture no animals but such as

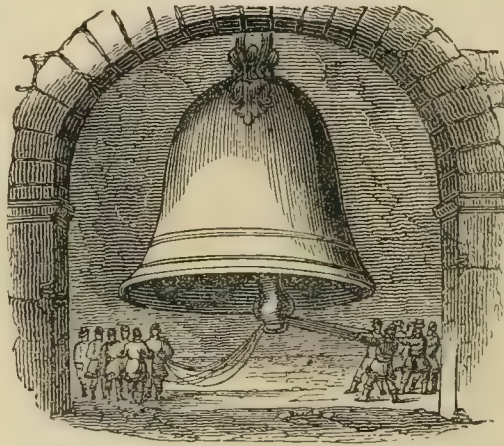
wander near them. When evening comes, however, they begin to move, and the roaring of the larger ones is terrific. It is a compound of the sounds of the bull and the bittorn, but far louder than either; and it grates and shivers on the ear, as if the ground were shaken. This is the common noise of the reptile, whether in love or hate.

Alligators are oviparous, and deposit their eggs in holes of the banks above the water-mark, which they excavate with their paws and snout, and cover again after the eggs are deposited. The eggs are not larger than those of a goose, and, though rather musky, are considered palatable.

During the floods in the spring, the rains beat many animals down the rivers — birds, reptiles, fish, &c., are all the same to the palate of the alligators, which, at this season, have a great feast, and grow very fat for a period of eight or ten weeks. The rest of the year, they need very little food.

The pike-headed alligator is the most ferocious and dangerous of the species. It has a head two feet long, armed with large, irregular teeth. It easily masters the larger animals, while quenching their thirst on the

shore of the rivers. It swims slowly toward one, and, when within reach, seizes the upper lip and nose; at the same time, turning its body round, it inflicts a heavy blow with its tail. The creature now falls down helpless, its cruel enemy holding its head under water, till it expires from suffocation. When it preys on fishes, it gets below them, jerks them out of the water, when it catches and swallows them. It performs the same process with the water birds.



BELLS.

THE origin of bells is probably to be dated from the time when the sonorous property of metals was first noticed. A tinkling instrument of some sort was in use as early as the days of Moses, when the priest was commanded to hang bells to his robe, in order to give notice of his approach to the sanctuary. They were also used in the decoration of horses.

Small bells were used by the Greeks and Romans for civil and military purposes, and they were sometimes rung in temples, to call the people to their religious duties. St. Paulinus, Bishop of Campania, in the fourth century, was the first who used them, in Christian churches, to call the people to prayer. They were then gradually introduced into the western churches, and into some of the Greek churches, though the wooden mallet is more generally in use there. The Turks particularly enforce the latter custom, as they abhor bells. The silencing of the "detestable bells" is es-

teemed, by a Turkish writer as the principal advantage which was derived from the capture of Constantinople.

Large bells came into use in the sixth century. They were adopted in England on the erection of parish churches. In the tenth century, the Abbot of Wayland presented a great bell to his church, to which six others were added, to harmonize with the first. This peal is the origin of the chimes so common in English villages.

One of the most celebrated bells of England is the Great Tom, of Oxford, which was cast in 1680; it was afterwards called by the name of Queen Mary. At its baptism, Dr. Tresham, on hearing the bell sounded, called out, "O sweet and pleasant harmony! O beautiful Mary, how musically it sounds! how melodiously it rings! how wonderfully it pleases the ear!" This bell weighs 17,000 pounds, and is the heaviest in England.

But Russia bears the palm over all other

countries in bells. There they may be constantly heard, not "swinging slow with sullen roar," for they are too large to be swung; but tolling, and booming, and deafening all other ears but those of the Russians, who almost worship them. The largest is called, in Russia, the "Tsar Kolokol," or King of Bells; it weighs 400,000 pounds, and is twenty feet high. It is placed in a cavity of the tower of the cathedral at Moscow; the tongue is fourteen feet long, and is as heavy as some of the largest English bells.

The metal of which it is made was brought from all parts of Russia, and thrown into the furnaces; the nobles were casting in gold and silver plates, rings, trinkets, and all kinds of ornaments, during the operation.

The only rivals to the bells of Russia are those of China, though they appear now to be out of fashion. These bells are struck with wooden tongues, making, according to some, a dull sound; though many describe the effect as very fine and melodious, though less powerful than that produced by metal.



THE RIALTO, AT VENICE.

THIS city of "bright and glittering palaces" is intersected in every direction by canals; and it is said that there are more than 500 bridges. Over the grand canal, which divides the city in two equal parts, is the celebrated Rialto. It is the established opinion, that the term Riva-alta, or Rialto, comprehended the little island upon which the first church was built in Venice by the fugitives from the persecution of Attila, and became the nucleus of the future city; modern times has confined the appellation to the bridge.

It was commenced under the government of the republic in 1588, (Pascal Cigogne being Doge,) by the great Michael Angelo, and finished in 1594. It consists of one flat and bold arch of nearly 100 feet span, and only twenty-three feet above the water. The breadth of the bridge is forty-three feet, and it is on the top divided by two rows of

shops into three streets, of which that in the middle is the widest; and there is also in the centre an open archway by which the three streets communicate with one another. The whole exterior of the bridge and of the shops is of marble. At each end of the bridge there is an ascent of fifty-six steps, and the view from the top is very beautiful. The foundation of the structure extends ninety feet, and rests upon 12,000 elm piles. It is said to have cost 250,000 ducats.

In Shakspeare's time it was considered the most beautiful bridge in the world, and this celebrity probably caused its frequent mention in his *Merchant of Venice* as a mart or exchange, "where merchants most do congregate." Our readers will also recollect Shylock's first speech to Antonio:—

"Many a time and oft,
On the Rialto, have you rated me,
About my monies and my usances."



THE TIGER.

IN the class of carnivorous animals, the lion is the foremost. Immediately after him follows the tiger; which, while he possesses all the bad qualities of the former, seems to be a stranger to his good ones. More, therefore, than even the lion, the tiger is an object of terror. He is the scourge of every country which he inhabits. Of the appearance of man, and of all his hostile weapons, he is fearless; wild animals, as well as tame ones, fall sacrifices before him; the young elephant and rhinoceros he sometimes attacks; and sometimes, with an increased audacity, he braves the lion himself.

The form of the body usually corresponds with the nature and disposition of the animal. The tiger, with a body too long, with limbs too short, with a head uncovered, and with eyes ghastly and haggard, has no characteristics but those of the basest and most insatiable cruelty. For instinct, he has nothing but a uniform rage, a blind fury; so blind, indeed, so undistinguished, that he frequently devours his own progeny, and, if she offers to defend them, tears in pieces the dam herself. Happy is it for the rest of nature that this animal is not common, and that the species is chiefly confined

to the warmest provinces of the East. The tiger is found in Malabar, in Siam, and in Bengal.*

When the tiger has killed a large animal, such as a horse or a buffalo, he does not choose to devour it on the spot, fearing to be disturbed; and, in order to feast at his ease, he carries off his prey to the forest, dragging it along with such ease that the swiftness of his motion seems scarcely retarded by the enormous load he sustains.

Such is the character which Buffon and many other naturalists have given to the tiger, and it certainly is not calculated to prejudice us in his favor. More recent writers have, however, and apparently with justice, endeavored to remove a part of the odium which has been thrown upon him. Mr. Bennett, the scientific and acute author of the description of the animals in the Tower Menagerie and the Zoological Gardens, has labored with much eloquence to raise the tiger in the scale of estimation. "Closely allied to the lion," says he, "whom he resembles in power, in external form, in internal structure, in zoological character, in his prowling habits, and in his sanguinary propensities, the tiger is at once distinguished from that king of beasts, and from

every other of their common genus, by the peculiar marking of his coat. On a ground which exhibits in different individuals various shades of yellow, he is elegantly striped by a series of transverse black bands or bars, which occupy the sides of his head, neck, and body, and are continued upon his tail in the form of rings, the last of the series uniformly occupying the extremity of that organ, and giving to it a black tip of greater or less extent. The under parts of his body and the inner sides of his legs are almost entirely white; he has no mane, and his whole frame, though less elevated than that of the lion, is of a slenderer and more graceful make. His head is also shorter, and more rounded.

"Almost in the same degree that the lion has been exalted and magnified, at the expense of his fellow-brutes, has the tiger been degraded and depressed below his natural level. While the one has been held up to admiration, as the type and standard of heroic perfection, the other has, with equal capriciousness and disregard of the close and intimate relationship subsisting between them, been looked upon by mankind in general with those feelings of unmingled horror and detestation which his character for untamable ferocity and insatiable thirst of blood was so well calculated to inspire. It requires, however, but little consideration to teach us that the broad distinction which has been drawn cannot by possibility exist; and the recorded observations of naturalists and travellers, both at home and abroad, will be found amply sufficient to prove that the difference in their characters and habits, on which so much stress has been laid, is in reality as slight and unessential as that which exists in their corporeal structure.

"Unquestionably the tiger has not the majesty of the lion; for he is destitute of the mane, in which that majesty chiefly resides. Neither has he the same calm and dignified air of imperturbable gravity, which is at once so striking and so prepossessing in the aspect of the lion. But, on the other hand, it will readily be granted, that, in the superior lightness of his frame, which allows his natural agility its free and unrestricted scope, and in the graceful ease and spirited activity of his motions, to say nothing of the beauty, the regularity, and the vividness of his coloring, he far excels his competitor, whose giant bulk and comparative heaviness of person, added to the dull uniformity of his color, detract in no small degree from the impression produced by his noble and majestic bearing.

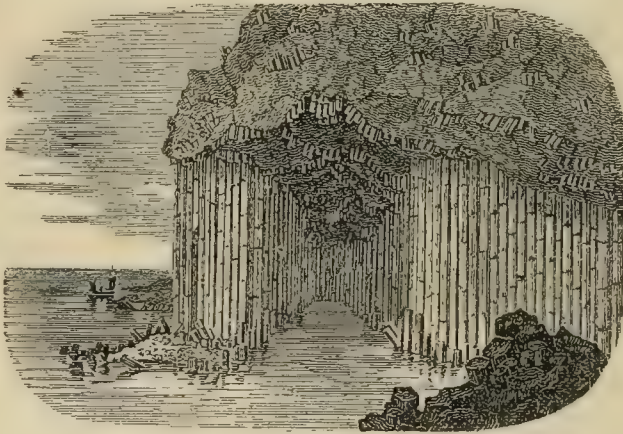
"In comparing the moral qualities of these two formidable animals, we shall also find that the shades of difference—for at most they are but shades—which distinguish them, are, like their external characteristics, pretty equally balanced in favor of each. In all the leading features of their character, the habits of both are essentially the same. The tiger, equally with the lion, and in common, indeed, with the whole of the group to which he belongs, reposes indolently in the security of his den, until the calls of appetite stimulate him to look abroad for food. He then chooses a convenient ambush, in which to lie concealed from observation, generally amid the underwood of the forest, but sometimes even on the branches of a tree, which he climbs with all the agility of a cat. In this secret covert he awaits with patient watchfulness the approach of his prey, upon which he darts forth with an irresistible bound, and bears it off in triumph to his den. Unlike the lion, however, if his first attack proves unsuccessful, and he misses his aim, he does not usually slink sullenly back into his retreat, but pursues his victim with a speed and activity which is seldom baffled even by the fleetest animals."

That the tiger is not irreclaimably ferocious, and that he is capable not merely of a capricious and transient liking, but of an enduring attachment, the following story affords an extraordinary and convincing proof. "A beautiful young tiger, brought in the Pitt, East-Indiaman, from China, in the year 1790, was so far domesticated as to admit of every kind of familiarity from the people on board the ship. It seemed to be quite harmless, and was as playful as a kitten. It frequently slept with the sailors in their hammocks; and would suffer two or three of them to repose their heads on its back as upon a pillow, while it lay stretched out upon the deck. In return for this indulgence, it would, however, now and then, steal their meat. Having, one day, stolen a piece of beef from the carpenter, he followed the animal, took the meat out of its mouth, and beat it severely for the theft; which punishment it suffered with all the patience of a dog. It would frequently run out on the bowsprit; climb about the ship like a cat; and perform many other tricks, with an agility that was truly astonishing. There was a dog on board, with which it would frequently play in the most diverting manner imaginable. This animal was taken on board the ship when it was only a month or six weeks old, and arrived in

England before it had quite completed its first year. On its arrival, it was presented to the king, and was afterwards deposited in the Tower of London. It even there continued to be perfectly good-natured, and was in no instance known to be guilty of any savage or mischievous tricks.

In the year 1801, one day after this tiger had been fed, his keeper put into the den to him, a small, rough, black terrier-puppy, a female. The tiger suffered it to remain uninjured, and soon afterwards became so much attached to it as to be restless and unhappy whenever the animal was taken away to be fed. On its return, the tiger invariably expressed the greatest symptoms of delight, always welcoming its arrival by gently licking over every part of its body. In one or two instances, the terrier was left in the den, by mistake, during the time the tiger had his food. The dog sometimes ventured to eat with him, but the tiger generally appeared dissatisfied with this liberty. After a residence with the tiger for several months, the terrier was

removed to make way for a little female Dutch mastiff. It was, however, thought advisable, before the terrier was taken away, to shut up the mastiff for three or four days among the straw of the tiger's bed, to take off, if possible, any smell that might be offensive to the animal. The exchange was made soon after the animals had been fed; the tiger seemed perfectly satisfied with his new companion, and immediately began to lick it, as he had before done the terrier. The dog seemed at first in considerable alarm with so formidable an inmate, but in the course of the day he became perfectly reconciled to his situation. This diminutive creature the tiger would suffer to play with him, with the greatest good-nature. "I have myself," says Mr. Bingley, "seen it bark at him, and bite him by the foot and mouth, without his expressing the least displeasure. When the dog, in its frolic, seized its foot, he merely lifted it up out of his mouth, and seemed otherwise heedless of its attacks."



FINGAL'S CAVE.

THIS celebrated curiosity is in the island of Staffa, one of the Hebrides, on the western coast of Scotland. The whole island seems to be a mass of lava and rock, called *basalt*, the latter generally consisting of crystals two to four feet long, with six or seven regular sides. These crystals are set one upon another, so as to look like pillars of hewn stone. All around the island these are visible to one who is sailing by, and sometimes they rise to the enormous height of one hundred and fifty feet.

The Cave of Fingal consists of a vast chamber, the floor of which is covered with water. The roof is of stone, supported by thousands of basaltic columns, such as we have described. It is forty-two feet wide at the mouth, two hundred and twenty-seven feet deep, and of unequal height, from fifty to one hundred feet.

The usual mode of entering the cave is by a boat; but as the seas are rough in this region, this can only be done at particular times. Within the cave is a hole, where

the flux and reflux of the waters produce a melodious murmur, which gave to it the title of the *Cave of Music*, by which it was formerly known.

This wonder of nature, produced no doubt by volcanic action, in some remote age of

the world, is said by the Scottish traditions to have been the work of an ancient hero, called *Fingal-Macool*. The basaltic wonders on the opposite coast of Ireland suggested similar ideas, and they have hence acquired the name of the *Giant's Causeway*.



PRESIDENT'S HOUSE, WASHINGTON.

THIS is a large and lofty edifice, situated on the northern bank of the river Potomac, a mile from the Capitol, the building where Congress meets. Near it are four buildings, devoted to the departments of State, War, Navy, and Treasury. It stands on a slight elevation, and commands a fine view of the Potomac and its banks. The grounds around are pleasantly laid out, and are ornamented with trees, shrubs, and walks.

The rooms in the house are large and lofty, and appear very handsome. The President of the United States resides here. Here he receives foreign ministers; and here he holds council with the members of

his cabinet. His large evening-parties are called *levees*.

The president's house is, on the whole, handsome and agreeable, though it is very inferior to the palaces of kings and princes of Europe. When foreigners come to this country, and compare the residence of our chief magistrate with the dwellings of their own sovereigns, they think it quite mean. But when we consider that the object of government is to make the people happy, and not to pamper the pride of kings, we may be rather gratified than annoyed at the comparisons of those who are brought up to admire and worship royalty.



TALLEYRAND.

CHARLES MAURICE TALLEYRAND DE PERIGORD was one of the most wonderful men of modern times. He was born at Paris, in 1754; and, being lame and feeble from his birth, he was educated for the church. By the influence of his family, he obtained rapid promotion, and at the age of thirty-five, he was Bishop of Autun.

In 1789, he was a member of the French Assembly, and joined heartily in the revolutionary movements of that body. He not only aided in measures calculated to prostrate the clergy, but joined in the movements of the period, which set religion wholly aside, and substituted human reason as the supreme guide of society.

But at last the times became too stormy for his timid disposition; and, accordingly, he fled to England, being able to save only a small part of his large fortune. The British government were jealous of him, and he was obliged to quit the country. In this dilemma, he came to the United States, where he spent some time.

After the fall of Robespierre, and the termination of the reign of terror, Talleyrand went back to Paris, and was made minister of foreign affairs, the government being then in the hands of the Directory. In this capacity, he was engaged in a shabby attempt to extort money from our American envoys who arrived in Paris in 1797. "France wants money," said the minister, "and must have it." This affair became public,

and the popular clamor against the minister caused his dismissal from office.

The disposition of Talleyrand led him to avoid taking a bold and open part; and he always sought to obtain power by fixing upon some leading character, to whom he made himself useful, thus promoting his own ambition. For this reason he espoused the cause of Bonaparte, and, when the latter became consul, the former was again appointed minister of foreign affairs. From this period till 1807, Talleyrand was Napoleon's chief counsellor; but at this date a coolness took place between them, which was never removed. The ex-minister had gained the title of Prince of Benevento, and acquired an immense fortune, and was therefore a man of consequence. But he was remarkable for his satirical wit, and, being a person of great taste and refinement, he was rather disgusted with the rude manners of some of Napoleon's new-made lords and ladies. He did not spare his sarcasms; and as they were very biting, and were repeated as good jests through all Europe, he became an object of no little hatred; at the same time, his great sagacity, and talents for political intrigue, made him equally feared. An instance of his penetration of mind, and talent for significant remark, was furnished when Bonaparte set out for the conquest of Russia, with nearly half a million of men. "This," said he, "is the beginning of the end." And such it proved,—the beginning of that downfall which was consummated three years afterwards at Waterloo.

When the allied armies, in 1814, entered Paris, the Russian emperor, Alexander, took lodgings at the house of the Prince of Benevento. From this time the latter joined the interest of the Bourbons, and, when Louis XVIII. was restored, he became his prime minister. In 1830, he was sent to England as ambassador, which place he held till 1835. On his return to Paris, he became a private citizen, and so continued till his death.

The last days of this extraordinary man corresponded with his previous career. Like Richelieu and Mazarin, he died surrounded by a crowd, and his death-bed scene had all the appearance of a political levee.

The first symptoms of the complaint which carried him off were a shivering fit, and repeated vomiting. He underwent an operation at the loins with great fortitude, merely once saying, "You give me great pain." He was perfectly aware of his danger. Having asked his medical men if

they thought they could cure him, they rightly estimated his strength of mind, and told him at once that he ought to put his affairs in order, and for the future attend to nothing but the care of his health. Being in his eighty-fifth year, his strength was soon exhausted by the disease.

The afternoon of Thursday, the seventeenth of May, 1838, will be noted as the date of the prince's death. He expired at four o'clock, the immediate cause of his dissolution being gangrene. He had for some time prepared, and addressed to the pope, a written retraction of his conduct at the famous ceremony of the Federation, where he forgot his episcopal ordination, and condescended to bless that democratic festival. He received absolution; and, extreme unction being administered, he died in the peace of the Catholic Church, although the Archbishop of Paris, to whom he had sent a copy of his letter to the pope, kept aloof from his bedside. Louis Philippe, however, visited the death-bed of the veteran statesman, whose respect for etiquette and courtly ideas was manifest in his dying moments. He insisted on presenting the king to all who happened to be with him, and in the true aristocratic spirit of his order, he acknowledged the royal visit, not as the act of warm private friendship, but as "a *great honor* done to his house!" Madame Adelaide, sister of the king, also visited the prince, and M. Thiers, and Count Mole, with other distinguished public characters, attended his last moments.

His funeral took place amidst great pomp and magnificence. The body was laid in the church of the Assumption, and the masses said were short. At the four corners of the hearse walked Marshal Soult, Count Mole, Chancellor Pasquier, and the Duke de Broglie; and immediately afterwards came the clergy, the ministers, the *corps diplomatique*, the peers, deputies, members of the Institute, and the civil and military authorities, all dressed in their state costumes, and walking uncovered.

After all, the best and most truly earned fame of Talleyrand is that of an epigrammatist. His remarks were pointed arrows, which he knew how to fling effectively from his retreat or his palace of the Rue St. Florentine, and which were always found to embody in a few words the current judgment. Yet his wit was the wit of intellect, not of temperament. It was full of meaning; always suggestive of thought; most frequently caustic. His reserve, probably constitutional, but heightened by the cir-

cumstances of his early life, and cultivated upon principle, was impenetrable. In advanced life, it seemed even to have affected his physical appearance.

It has been said that, when at rest, but for his glittering eye, it would have been difficult to feel certain that it was not a statue that was placed before you. When his sonorous voice broke upon the ear, it was like a possessing-spirit speaking from a graven image. Even in comparatively early life, his power of banishing all expression from his countenance, and the soft and heavy appearance of his features, was remarked as contrasting strangely with the manly energy indicated by his deep and powerful voice. Mirabeau, in the beginning, Napoleon at the close, of the revolution, threw him into the shade; but he outlasted both. The secret of his power was patience and pertinacity; and his life has the appearance of being preternaturally lengthened out, when we recollect the immense number of widely-removed characters and events of which he was the contemporary.



THE TRUFFLE.

THE common truffle is a sort of fungus, growing entirely under ground; it is sometimes called the *ground mushroom*. There are several kinds, but the eatable one is the most remarkable. It varies in size from that of a hazel-nut to the bigness of a man's fist. It is covered with a thick skin, of a dark color; the inside flesh is firm and veiny. Although the truffle is rare, it grows

in most countries, and is sought after as an article of luxury, being used to give a flavor to sauces; a turkey stuffed with truffles is considered in France a great delicacy.

Truffles are usually found under trees in open forest-grounds and plantations. They require a light, loamy soil, and a spot shaded from the sun. When ripe, they diffuse a very strong and peculiar odor. By means of this, dogs are taught, in Europe, to hunt them out, and scratch them up. This is easily done, as they usually lie only two or three inches beneath the surface of the ground. The dog selected for the purpose is either a poodle, or a French barbet; both kinds are docile, and have a good nose, and not having a very strong instinct for following game, are not easily taken off their work.

The education of a dog for hunting truffles is very simple. He is first taught to fetch and carry; then the thing is buried under ground, and he learns to scratch it up and give it to his master, who always rewards him by a piece of bread. As his education advances, truffles are used as the subject to be fetched; they are buried in the earth, and the dog is set to find them, reward always following success. The old

man represented in the cut, who is a celebrated trainer of truffle-dogs, generally keeps a few truffles dried or soaked in grease through the winter, thus preserving the odor for the purpose of teaching the young dogs.

After the dog is sufficiently acquainted with the smell of the hidden truffle, so as to scratch for it, the hunter takes him out in the field with a well-trained dog, and they are set to hunt about under the trees to discover the truffle. The hunter often assists the dogs, when they begin to scratch, with a scud, which is represented in the cut; and as soon as the truffle is found, each dog is rewarded by a piece of bread, which has been flavored by the truffles.

The pig has also been trained to hunt this vegetable, but he is very apt to eat it when he finds it. The gourmand has many rivals for the possession of this highly-esteemed delicacy; squirrels, hogs, deer, badgers, and mice, are all eager to search after it in the woods.

Many attempts have been made to cultivate the truffle, but the success is not determined; nothing is known of the process of its dissemination.



THE WHITE ASS.

THE most beautiful specimen of asses is the *atun*, or *white ass*. Calmet says that it is the immediate descendant of the wild ass, or *onager*, and is much valued by the great men of the East, and eagerly sought after for their own personal dignity and accommodation. Such is the price of these handsome and elegantly proportioned crea-

tures, that common people are unable to procure them, and the possession of them is therefore restricted to the great and wealthy.

Some writers have stated that the genuine race of white asses is peculiar to the vicinity of the river Euphrates. The white of this comely animal is of a silvery color, contributing greatly to its noble appear-

ance, and therefore so suited to the imposing and graceful procession of ancient eastern princes.

In Judges xii. 13, 14, we read of one of the judges of Israel, Abdon, a Pirathonite; he had forty sons and thirty nephews, that rode on threescore and ten ass-colts, that is, *white* ass-colts. This furnishes some idea of the splendor and dignity maintained by Abdon, the judge of Israel. The costly present which the opulent and holy patriarch Jacob gave to his brother Esau, included twenty she-asses and ten foals of this superior race. (Gen. xxxii. 15.)

To one of the same species the dying Jacob alluded, when he pronounced the

blessing on Judah, and described him as "binding his foal unto the vine, and his ass's colt unto the choice vine." (Gen. xlix.

11.) The words "ass's colt," in the original, mean the son of the *atun*, or white ass. David had, as one of the appendages of royalty, a stud of white asses. Therefore we read, (1 Chron. xxvii. 30,) that over the *atunuth*, or white asses, was appointed Jehdeiah, the Meronothite. Such was the astonishing wealth of Job, that he possessed a thousand she-asses, after he had been raised from the depths of poverty, suffering, and disease, to an elevation of power, wealth, and glory, far exceeding that which he originally enjoyed. (Job xlii. 13.)



GROTTO OF ANTIPAROS.

AMONG the islands on the coast of Greece is one called *Antiparos*, which is celebrated for its cavern or grotto. Though not the largest, it is certainly one of the most beautiful, in the world. Its mouth is obscure, and it was not discovered till about two centuries ago.

Soon after you enter the cave, you see frightful precipices on every side. But ropes and ladders have been so placed down the dismal cliffs and chasms, that a person of firm nerves may descend. At

the depth of eighteen hundred feet, — one third of a mile, — there is a grotto three hundred and sixty feet long, three hundred and forty wide, and one hundred and eighty high. When lighted up by torches, this strange temple surpasses all human architecture in the splendor of its effect. The roof and sides, composed of stalactites, shine like silver and gold and precious stones.

The stalactites are of a thousand fantastic forms. Hanging from the roof, they present the shapes of icicles, leaves, flowers, and fes-

toons, yet so bright as to dazzle the eye. The sides of the vast arch seem like trees of silver, the branches being connected by festoons, while rivers of white marble are flowing at their roots. The floor is strewn with crystals of every hue — red, green, blue and yellow — and sparkling like rubies, and emeralds, and diamonds. Along the sides, you sometimes seem to see aged trees of marble, white as snow; or, perhaps, a vast curtain, seeming to be drawn across some place too sacred to be entered. There is, indeed, no end to the forms and images presented to the eye, in this wonderful grotto; and nothing can compare with the beauty of the individual objects, except the general effect, which is truly amazing — surpassing, indeed, all the fancies of the Arabian fabulist.



THE CRUSADES.

CRUSADES, or Croisades, was the name given to the expeditions fitted out by the Christian warriors of Europe, for the recovery of the Holy Land, from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century. The Crusades derived their name from the badge of the cross, which was wrought upon their mantles, and appeared in various parts of their equipments.

The age was one in which the people were peculiarly adapted to the reception of enthusiastic religious impulses. The

Christians could not bear to think that the places which they held so dear, and which the history of their religion hallowed, should be desecrated by the presence of infidels, and rendered dangerous to those pilgrims whom a sincere feeling of reverence called to Palestine. The church called upon the chivalry of Europe, and the knights responded to the summons.

The rise of the Crusades is immediately attributable to the enthusiasm of a wandering pilgrim, called Peter the Hermit, who,

having experienced the tyrannical exactions imposed on the visitors of the holy sepulchre, represented them to Pope Urban II. in such lively colors, that the prelate selected him as the instrument of a grand design which he had formed to overthrow the Mohammedan power; and Peter, armed with the holy commission, went from province to province, to kindle up that enthusiasm by which he was himself consuming.

When the feelings of the people and the potentates appeared ripe for some wild project, Urban held a council in the open fields at Piacenza, and proposed his scheme, which was warmly applauded, but not as warmly embraced. Another council was therefore held at Clermont, France, graced by the presence of ambassadors from all nations, and the result was as favorable as he could have anticipated. The pope held out to the crusaders the promise of spiritual pardon, and imposed on them only the penance of plunder for their sins. Thus excited, the enthusiasm became general; noblemen sold their estates for outfits; the meanest lords of the manors set forth at their own expense; the poor gentlemen followed them as esquires; and above eighty thousand collected under the banners of the cross. Godfrey, of Boulogne, was at the head of seventy thousand foot; and ten thousand horse, splendidly armed, were under the command of many lords, who were joined by Hugh, brother to Philip I., of France, Raymond of Toulouse, Bohemond, King of Sicily, and others of equal and less note. A proposal was made to the pope to put himself at their head, but he refused. This refusal, however, did not damp their ardor.

Confiding in their cause, their numbers, and their equipments, they traversed Germany and Hungary, took Nice, Antioch, and Edessa, and arrived at Jerusalem in July, 1099. The city was taken after five weeks' siege. All but the Christians were massacred, and the army of crusaders, after the perpetration of unparalleled atrocities, went to shed their tears at the sepulchre of Christ! Godfrey of Boulogne, (not without opposition from the priests,) was elected King of Jerusalem, but died in 1100. In 1102, an immense army, which departed for the Holy Land, was defeated, and no fewer than two hundred thousand men lost to Europe by the enterprise. The capture of Baldwin, and the loss of Edessa, occasioned a new crusade.

France again gave the impulse to their religious excitement. Pope Eugenius III. induced St. Bernard, of Clairvaux, to act

the part of Peter the Hermit, and the consequence was that Louis the Young, accompanied by his wife, Eleanor of Guienne, departed for the Holy Land, and Conrad III., in whose hands the red cross was placed, led a large army into Asia. Both of them, however, were unsuccessful.

The unfortunate issue of the second crusade was precipitated by the dissensions of the Christians, and the uncommon abilities of the Sultan Saladin, who, advancing at the head of an army that placed implicit confidence in the courage and skill of their leader, animated by a religious fury no less absorbing than that which filled the breasts of the crusaders, threw himself upon Jerusalem, which, unable to hold out against him, once more echoed to the shouts of Saracen conquerors, as they again erected their crescent on the ramparts of the city. The Christians lost all their possessions but Antioch, Tripoli, Joppa, and Tyre.

The leaders of the third crusade, (1189,) were Frederick I., of Germany, surnamed Barbarossa, the chivalric Philip Augustus, of France, and the lion-hearted Richard I., of England. Barbarossa was ultimately unsuccessful, but the monarchs of France and England took possession of Ptolemais or Acre. Philip Augustus, from motives of jealousy, left the field to Richard, who proved himself a worthy rival of Saladin, and the two commanders performed wonderful feats of arms, which were the admiration of both armies. The fourth crusade was conducted by Andrew II., King of Hungary, and the fifth by Frederick II., of Germany. The results of these ought to have shown that the Christians could not hope to gain permanent possession of the country. It was this time that St. Louis, King of France, undertook the sixth and last crusade, which, though well conceived, and vigorously carried on, was unsuccessful. In the last crusade no fewer than one hundred and fifty thousand persons perished; add to this the number that died in former expeditions, and it will be seen that the East was the tomb of above two millions of Europeans; and several countries were depopulated and impoverished by the crusades. Yet the Holy Wars were not without good. They created an intimate connection and a constant intercourse between the nations of Europe, which, as it was favorable to commercial enterprise, increased the wealth, improved the arts, and contributed to establish the civilization, of the Christian world.



MAGNA CHARTA.

This instrument, the *Great Charter* of England, and deemed the foundation of English liberty, was extorted from King John I. by the barons, or nobles, who had become dissatisfied with his tyranny. He met them on Friday, 15th of June, 1215, in a large meadow, between Windsor and Staines, called *Runimede*, which means the *meadow of council*, and which was so called because it had been used by the Saxons as a place for public meetings. John signed this document with great reluctance, but he dared not refuse. By it the nobles were relieved from much of the oppressive tyranny of the feudal system. This had been constantly increasing, till no subject could act in the commonest affairs of life without the king's consent, which could be obtained only for money.

We can understand the sort of interference the king had in every person's concerns, when we learn that no one could marry without his consent, and that he could oblige heiresses to marry whom he pleased. Enormous sums were paid by females, either for leave to marry, or, more

commonly, that they might not be forced to wed against their will. Thus we read of a Countess of Chester, who paid King Stephen five hundred marks, that she might not be obliged to marry for five years; and of a Countess of Warwick, who paid King John five hundred marks, that she might not be compelled to marry till she pleased. This sum would be equal to forty or perhaps fifty thousand dollars at the present day.

The Great Charter contains sixty-three articles, and yet only one of these is for the protection of the laboring people. It provides that "*even* a farmer shall not by any fine be deprived of his carts, ploughs, and implements of husbandry." The invidious word, "*even*," shows plainly how little they were considered or thought of at this period. The truth is that the boasted *Magna Charta* of England was a charter of greater liberty to the nobles, but the mass had little interest in it. English liberty, at the present day, is modelled after this ancient document, which leaves power and privilege in the hands of the few, and denies it to the many.



NOBLE DEEDS OF WOMEN.

AN interesting volume might be written, under the title here given. History is full of incidents which represent women, under the influence of kind and generous motives, performing acts of courage and devotion, seldom equalled and never surpassed by the other sex. A mother, in defence of her offspring, is without fear. We are told of a Scottish mother, who rushed in the very face of an eagle and rescued her infant, which had been carried off and placed in his nest by this formidable bird.

History tells us that, towards the end of the seventeenth century, a lion escaped from the menagerie of the Grand Duke of Florence, and ran through the streets of that city, spreading everywhere terror and dismay. A woman flying from his fury, with her infant in her arms, dropt it in her flight, when it was immediately seized upon by the lion. Frantic at the disaster, she threw herself on her knees before the animal, and implored with all the energy and expression

of a mother in despair, the life of her child. The lion stopped,—fixed his eyes upon her,—placed the infant upon the ground, without having done it the smallest injury, and departed!

In September, 1789, a little boy about five years old, the son of a man named Freemantle, in Salisbury, England, being at play by the dam of the town mill, fell into the water; his sister, a child of nine years of age, with an affection that would have done honor to riper years, instantly plunged in to his assistance. They both sank, and in sight of their mother! The poor woman, distracted with horror at the prospect of instant death to her children, braved the flood to save them; she rose with one under each arm, and by her cries happily brought her husband, who instantly swam to their assistance, and brought them all three safe ashore.

Mary, Countess of Orkney, was both deaf and dumb; she was married in the year

1753, by signs. Shortly after the birth of her first child, the nurse, with considerable astonishment, saw the mother cautiously approach the cradle in which the infant was sleeping, evidently full of some deep design. The Countess, having perfectly assured herself that the child really slept, raised a large stone which she had concealed under her shawl, and, to the horror of the nurse, lifted it with an apparent intent to fling it down vehemently. Before the nurse could interpose, the Countess had flung the stone, — not, however, as the servant had apprehended, at the child, but on the floor, where, of course, it made a great noise. The child immediately awoke, and cried. The Countess, who had looked with maternal eagerness to the result of her experiment, fell on her knees in a transport of joy. She had discovered that her child possessed the sense which was deficient in herself: it was not deaf!

In the severe winter of 1783, which was a time of general distress at New York, an aged couple found themselves reduced to their last stick of wood. They had been supported by the industry of a daughter who lived with them, but who now found herself unable to procure them either fuel or provisions. Overcome with grief at their destitute situation, she yet devised an expedient by which they might be rescued from the emergency. She had accidentally heard that a dentist had advertised to give three guineas for every sound fore-tooth, provided only that he was allowed to extract it himself. The generous girl, on remembering this, came to the resolution of disposing of all her fore-teeth, and went to the dentist for that purpose! On her arrival, she made known the circumstances which had induced her to make so uncommon a sacrifice.

Affected even to tears by the girl's filial affection, the dentist refused to avail himself of the offer, at the same time presenting her with ten guineas, with which, her heart overflowing with joy and gratitude, she hastened home to relieve her parents.

Robert, Duke of Normandy, eldest son of William the Conqueror, a prince of a generous and noble spirit, having been wounded by a poisoned arrow, the physicians declared nothing could save him but the venom's being sucked from his wound by some one whose life must fall a sacrifice. Robert disdained to save his own life by hazarding that of another; but the noble Sibilla did this in his sleep, and died to save her husband!

About the time that Spinola with the Bavarians first entered the Palatinate, Ra-

thean Herpin, finding that her husband, Christopher Thœon, was afflicted with apoplexy in all his limbs — with an invincible constancy, at several journeys bore him upon her back the space of 1,300 English miles to a bath, for his recovery!

The Duke d'Epèrnon was governor of the Château d'Angoulême; and the chiefs of the League in 1588 having determined to effect his ruin, rendered him suspected at court, and obtained an order for his arrest, which was given to a magistrate with instructions to proceed to the castle and seize the duke. The officer charged with the execution of this command found means to make the Duchess d'Epèrnon his prisoner, and with a view of compelling the duke to surrender, he placed her before the principal gate of the citadel, to which the troops under his command had laid siege. In this perilous situation one of the officers, by whom the duchess was led, was killed at her feet, and another mortally wounded.

Calm, amidst the dangers which menaced her, and insensible to the remonstrances of the enemy, who urged her to exhort her husband to surrender, Marguerite replied magnanimously, that she knew not how to give ill counsel, nor would she enter into a treaty with murderers. "In what terms," said she, "can a wife, who is afflicted only that she has but one life to offer for the honor and safety of her husband, persuade him to an act of cowardice?" She went on to declare that she would shed, with joy, the last drop of her blood, to add new lustre to the reputation of her husband, or to lengthen his existence but a single day; that she would be guilty of no weakness that should disgrace him; and that she would die with pleasure, at the castle gate, for him without whom she should be indifferent to life even on a throne.

To the duke, whom they endeavored to terrify by the dangers which threatened his wife, she held out her arms, and implored him not to suffer his resolution to be shaken by any considerations which respected her safety. It was her wish, she told him, that her body might serve him for a new rampart against his enemies. On him, she declared, in whom she lived, depended her fortune and her fate; that by sacrificing himself, he would gain no advantage, since she was determined not to survive him; but that to live in his remembrance, would, in despite of their adversaries, constitute her happiness and glory. The grace and energy with which the high-souled Marguerite expressed herself softened the hearts of the enemy,

who deliberated on other means by which their purpose might be effected. In the interval the duke was relieved by his friends; when Marguerite, impatient to rejoin this beloved husband, of whom she had proved herself so worthy, without waiting till the castle gate was cleared, entered by a ladder at one of the windows, and was received with the honor and tenderness she merited.

During the siege of Ostend, which continued three years, three months, and three days, the Spaniards took a great number of Dutch sailors and some pilots of consideration, whom they destined to the galleys, in consequence of the bad treatment which some of their nation had before experienced from the Dutch. Catherine Herman, a Dutch woman, of great virtue and courage, wife of one of the pilots who had been taken prisoners, having resolved to deliver her husband from this captivity, cut off her hair, dressed herself in men's clothes, and repaired to the camp before Ostend, after having surmounted, as appears, the greatest difficulties. But what formed the chief obstacle to her design was her great beauty, which attracted the notice of the officers and soldiers in the army of the Archduke Albert, who all wished to speak to her; and who, having found that her accent was different from that of the rest, took her for a spy of Count Maurice of Nassau. She was, therefore, arrested, and carried before the provost of the army, who caused chains to be put on her feet and hands and treated her with great severity.

Catherine Herman would have considered herself happy in this state of affliction had she been put into the same prison with her husband, but she was confined in another place, and, to add to her grief, she learnt that seven of the prisoners were to be executed next day, to avenge the death of seven others whom the besieged had treated in the same manner; and that the rest were to be put in chains, either to serve as galley-slaves in the country, or to be sent to Spain. While this magnanimous female was agitated between hope and fear, she saw a Jesuit enter, who came, according to custom, to visit the prisoners, and having confessed to him, she entrusted him with her secret. The Jesuit, admiring her resolution, promised her every assistance in his power, and he obtained leave, indeed, from Count de Bucquoi, afterwards marshal of the empire, for her being removed to the same prison in which her husband was confined.

As soon as she perceived him in the deplorable state of those who expect death or

slavery, she fainted; but having recovered, she no longer concealed her design. As soon, therefore, as she was able to speak, she declared that she had sold her most valuable articles in order to release her husband; that she had disguised herself that she might negotiate for his ransom; and that if she were not so fortunate as to succeed in her enterprise, she was resolved to accompany her husband wherever he might be sent, to assist him in pulling the oar, and to share in his punishment, however cruel. Count Bucquoi, having heard of her determination, was so sensibly affected by the generosity of this Dutch woman, that he not only bestowed on her the highest praise, but set her and her husband at liberty.

Let us turn from these grave recitals to a humorous anecdote, related by Napoleon himself, of the conjugal affection displayed by some women who accompanied his troops when he was at Col de Tende. To enter this mountainous and difficult country, it was necessary for the soldiers to pass over a narrow bridge, and, as the enterprise was of a very hazardous description, Napoleon had given orders that no women should be permitted to cross it with them, especially as the service required that the men should be constantly on the alert. To enforce this order, two captains were stationed on the bridge, with instructions, on pain of death, not to suffer a woman to pass. The passage was effected, and the troops continued their march.

When some miles beyond the bridge, the Emperor was thrown into the utmost astonishment by the appearance of a considerable number of women with the soldiers. He immediately ordered the two captains to be put under arrest, intending to have them tried for a breach of duty. The prisoners protested their innocence, asserting that no woman had crossed the bridge. Napoleon, on hearing this, commanded that some of the women should be brought before him, when he interrogated them on the subject. To his utter surprise they readily acknowledged that the captains had not betrayed their trust, but that a contrivance of their own had brought them into their present situation. They informed Napoleon, that having thrown the provisions, which had been prepared for the support of the army, out of some of the casks, they had concealed themselves in them, and by this stratagem succeeded in passing over without discovery.

In the year 1815, M. Lavalette, who had held high offices in Paris, was condemned,

for his adherence to the cause of Bonaparte, to suffer death. The eve of the day of execution, the 24th of December, had already arrived, and all hope of saving him had been abandoned, except by one heroic woman alone.

Madame Lavalette's health had been very seriously impaired by her previous sufferings; and for several weeks preceding, in order to avoid the movement of her carriage, she had used a sedan chair. About half-past three, on the afternoon of the 23d, she arrived at the Conciergerie, a state prison at Paris, seated as usual in this chair, and clothed in a furred riding coat of red merino, with a large black hat and feathers on her head. She was accompanied by her daughter, a young lady of about twelve years of age, and an elderly woman, attached to M. Lavalette's service, of the name of Dutoil. The chair was ordered to wait for her at the gate of the Conciergerie.

At five o'clock Jacques Eberle, one of the wicket-keepers of the Conciergerie, who had been specially appointed by the keeper of the prison to the guard and service of Lavalette, took his dinner to him, of which Madame and Mademoiselle Lavalette, and the widow Dutoil, partook.

After dinner, which lasted an hour, Eberle served up coffee, and left Lavalette's apartment, with orders not to return till he was rung for.

Towards seven o'clock the bell rang. Roquette, the gaoler, was at that moment near the fire-place of the hall, with Eberle, to whom he immediately gave orders to go into Lavalette's chamber. Roquette heard Eberle open the door which led to that chamber, and immediately after he saw three persons, dressed in female attire, advance, who were followed by Eberle. The person whom he took to be Madame Lavalette was attired in a dress exactly the same as she was, in every particular; and, to all outward appearance, no one could have imagined but that they saw that lady herself passing before them. A white handkerchief covered the face of this person, who seemed to be sobbing heavily, while Mademoiselle Lavalette, who walked by the side, uttered the most lamentable cries.

Everything presented the spectacle of a family given up to the feelings of a last adieu. The keeper, melted and deceived by the disguise and by the scanty light of two lamps, had not the power, as he afterwards said, to take away the handkerchief which concealed the features of the principal individual in the group, and instead of

performing his duty, presented his hand to the person, — as he had been used to do to Madame Lavalette, — whom he conducted, along with the other two persons, to the last wicket. Eberle then stepped forward, and ran to call Madame Lavalette's chair. It came instantly, the feigned Madame Lavalette stepped into it, and was slowly carried forward, followed by Mademoiselle Lavalette and the widow Dutoil. When they reached the Quay des Orfeveres, they stopped; Lavalette came out of the chair, and in an instant disappeared.

Soon after, the keeper, Roquette, entered the chamber of Lavalette, where he saw no one, but heard some one stirring behind the screen, which formed part of the furniture of the apartment. He concluded it was Lavalette, and withdrew without speaking. After a few minutes, he returned a second time, and called; no one answered. He began to fear some mischief, advanced beyond the screen, and there saw Madame Lavalette. "*Il est parti,*" she tremulously ejaculated. "Ah! Madame," exclaimed Roquette, "you have deceived me." He wished to run out to give the alarm, but Madame Lavalette caught hold of him by the coat-sleeve. "Stay, Monsieur Roquette, stay." "No, Madame, this is not to be borne." A struggle ensued, in which the coat was torn; but Roquette at last forced himself away, and gave the alarm.

Lavalette, after having escaped from the Conciergerie, was still far from being out of danger. He had to get out of Paris, — out of France; and a more difficult achievement it is scarcely possible to conceive; for the moment his escape was discovered, nothing could exceed the activity with which he was sought after by the agents of government. Bills describing his person with the greatest exactness were quickly distributed all over France; and there was not a postmaster, postilion, or gendarme on any of the roads, who had not one of them in his pocket. Lavalette sought the means of escape, not among those of his countrymen whom he knew to be attached to the cause for which he was persecuted; nor even from those whom affection or gratitude bound to his family; but among those strangers whose presence, as conquerors, on his native soil, he had so much cause to lament.

He had heard, that to a truly British heart the pleadings of humanity were never made in vain; and he was now to try the experiment, in his own person, of the truth of the eulogium. On the 2d of January he sent a person with an unsigned letter to

Mr. Michael Bruce, an English gentleman resident at Paris; in which, after extolling the goodness of his heart, the writer said he was induced, by the confidence which he inspired, to disclose to him a great secret — that Lavalette was still in Paris; adding that he, Bruce, alone could save him, and requesting him to send a letter to a certain place, stating whether he would embark in the generous design. Mr. Bruce was touched with commiseration; he spoke on the subject to two other countrymen, Sir Robert Wilson and Captain Hutchinson; and the result was, that the whole three joined in a determination to afford the unfortunate fugitive every assistance in their power to complete his escape.

The scheme which they devised for that purpose was crowned with complete success. Lavalette was conveyed in safety into a neutral territory, where he lived in quiet obscurity, until the fury of the party persecution which exiled him having exhausted

itself, he was restored by a free pardon to his country, his family, and his friends. From the Memoirs of Count Lavalette, subsequently written by himself, it, however, appears that the noble-hearted Madame Lavalette paid with her reason the price of her husband's safety. Her mind, at once excited and sustained by the presence of danger, sank with the absence of peril; and when Lavalette, after five years' exile, returned to France, he found his devoted and beautiful wife the ruin of her former self.

The tribute due to the conjugal heroism of Madame Lavalette was universally paid both in France and throughout Europe; even party animosity, which was daily calling for the execution of the husband, did justice to the wife. When the heads of the different departments were each vindicating themselves to the king from any share in the blame of the escape, his Majesty coolly replied, "I do not see that anybody has done their duty except Madame Lavalette."



THE WILD TURKEY.

This beautiful bird is abundant in the wooded and uncultivated parts of the Western States, and the vast forests of the great valley of the Mississippi.

In the fall of the year, which period is called the *turkey months*, by the Indians, it

spreads itself through the country in search of food, upon which its migrations depend. These are made entirely on foot, till the turkeys reach a river. They then ascend to the tops of tall trees, and, at the cluck of their leader, fly for the opposite bank, the

young ones sometimes falling into the water and drowning. Their speed in running is very considerable, and, when molested, they run with the velocity of a hound. After long journeys in frosty weather, they sometimes associate with the poultry near farm-houses, and enter the barns for grain. During this season, great numbers are killed by the inhabitants, who preserve them in a frozen state and transport them to distant markets.

The female lays her eggs in April, in a hole slightly scratched in the ground, and covered with withered leaves. These she studiously conceals, and seldom abandons, and hatches from ten to fifteen young birds. The care and tenderness of the parent are now evinced by watching for the slightest danger, and resorting to places where there is the best supply of fruit and berries.

As the flesh of the turkey affords delicious food, they are attacked by both men and animals. The wild-cat frequently seizes them, by concealing itself, and springing upon its unsuspecting prey. When the hunter approaches them by moonlight, they are readily shot from their roosting tree, one after another, without any apprehension of danger. In the spring, a whistle is made of the second joint of the wing, which produces a sound similar to the voice of the female; and the cocks, on coming up to this call, are then easily shot. They are also caught in pens made of logs.

On the banks of the Missouri, the feathers of the wings are used by the Indians for pluming arrows, and form an article of commerce among them.



THE MOOSE.

This animal is the largest of the deer species, exceeding even the horse in the height of his shoulders. Naturalists have generally considered the Moose Deer to be the same species with the elk of the northern parts of the old world; but the fact that few of the American quadrupeds have been found precisely similar to their European representatives, ought to excite doubts of the identity of the moose and European elk. The moose exists in considerable numbers near the Bay of

Fundy, and frequents the woody tracts in the fur countries to their most northern limit, and on the Mackenzie and Coppermine rivers, where they feed on the willows and aspen. They are frequent in the northern parts of Maine and New York. They are rarely if ever found west of the Rocky Mountains.

The moose is quite a solitary animal: it has the sense of hearing in very great perfection, and is the most shy and wary of all

the deer species. On this account moose hunting is looked upon as the greatest of an Indian's acquirements. The skill of a moose hunter is most tried in the early part of the winter, as the animal is tracked by its foot-marks on the snow; and it is necessary that he should keep constantly to leeward, and use the utmost caution, for the rustling of a leaf is sufficient to alarm the watchful beast. In this manner he tracks the animal, till by the marks on the snow he discovers that he is very near to him; he then breaks a twig, which, alarming the moose, it springs up and prepares to start. The hunter now fires, and seldom fails in killing him.

In the winter, when the snow is very deep, the hunters frequently chase them on snow-shoes. Notwithstanding the lengthened chase which the moose can sustain on the snow, Hearne remarks that it is both tender-footed and short-winded, though instances are recorded of its eluding pursuit for six successive days. The same author says that in summer, moose deer are often killed in the water by the Indians, as when

they are crossing the rivers or lakes, they never make any resistance. They are the easiest to domesticate of any of the deer kind.

The flesh of the moose is more relished by the Indians, and residents in the fur countries than that of any other animal, principally, we suppose, on account of its soft fat. It bears a greater resemblance to beef, in its flavor, than to venison. The nose is considered most excellent food. The moose acquires a large size, occasionally weighing eleven or twelve hundred pounds. Their skins, when properly dressed, make a soft, thick, pliable leather, excellently adapted for moccasins, or other articles of winter clothing. Its movements are very heavy; it shuffles or ambles along, its joints cracking at every step, with a sound heard at some distance. During its progress, it holds up its nose so as to lay the horns back horizontally. Although its figure is uncouth, yet when seen in the wilderness, in all the glory of its full-grown horns, no animal could appear more majestic or imposing.



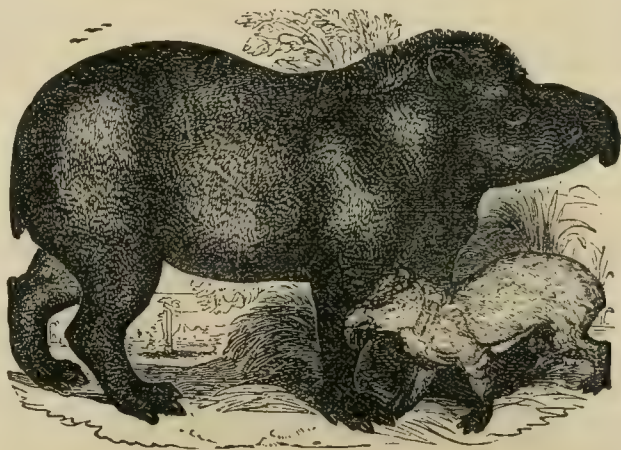
THE ZEBRA

Is, perhaps, the handsomest and most elegantly clothed of all quadrupeds. He has the shape and graces of the horse, the swiftness of the stag, and a striped robe of black and white alternately disposed with so much regularity and symmetry, that it seems as if nature had made use of the rule

and compass to paint it. These alternate bands of black and white are so much the more singular, as they are straight, parallel, and very exactly divided, like a striped stuff. In other parts, they extend themselves not only over the body, but over the head, the thighs, the legs, and even the ears

and the tail; so that, at a distance, the animal appears as if he was surrounded with little fillets, which some person had disposed in a regular manner, over every part of the body. In the females, these bands are alternately black and white; in the male, they are brown and yellow, but always of a lively and brilliant mixture, upon a short, fine, and thick hair—the lustre of which still more increases the beauty of the colors. The zebra is, in general, less than the horse, and larger than the ass; and, although it has often been compared to those two animals, and called the *Wild Horse* and the *Striped Ass*, it is a copy neither of the one nor the other, and might rather be called their model, if all was not equally original in nature, and if every species had not an equal right to creation.

The zebra is chiefly found in the southern parts of Africa, and is often seen near the Cape of Good Hope. Such of them as are caught alive are presented to the governor. Several have been brought to Europe and the United States, but, except in a few instances, they have displayed great wildness, and even ferocity. Some years ago there was one in London, which would allow young children to be put upon its back, and was once ridden from the Lyceum to Pimlico; but it was bred and reared in Portugal, from parents half reclaimed. In several other cases, zebras have attempted to injure spectators, and have not even spared their keepers. The voice of this creature is thought to have a distant resemblance to the sound of a post-horn.



THE TAPIR.

THE Tapir is of the size of a small cow: it has a short naked tail; the legs are short and thick, and the feet have small black hoofs. The body is thick and clumsy, and the back somewhat arched: the hair is of a dusky or brownish color. On the short thick neck is a kind of bristly mane, which, near the head, is an inch and a half in length. His head is of a tolerable size, with roundish erect ears, and small eyes: the muzzle terminates in a kind of proboscis, which can be extended or contracted at the will of the animal. The latter it uses in feeding, to grasp its food and convey it to the mouth, in the same way that the rhinoceros applies its upper lip. In this flexible snout are contained the organs of smell. He has

ten incisive teeth, and ten grinders, in each jaw; a character which separates him entirely from the ox, and other ruminating animals. His skin is so thick and hard as to be almost impenetrable to a bullet; for which reason the Indians make shields of it.

The tapir seldom stirs out but in the night, and delights in the water, where he oftener lives than upon land. He is chiefly to be found in marshes, and seldom goes far from the borders of rivers or lakes. He swims and dives with singular facility. When he is threatened, pursued, or wounded, he plunges into the water, and remains there till he has got to a great distance before he reappears. These customs, which he has in common with the hippopotamus, have

made some naturalists imagine him to be of the same species; but he differs as much from him in nature, as he is distant from him in climate. To be assured of this, there needs no more than to compare the description we have now recited, with that of the hippopotamus. Although the tapir inhabits the water, he does not feed upon fish; and, although his mouth is armed with twenty sharp and incisive teeth, he is not carnivorous. He lives upon sugar-canes, grasses, the leaves of shrubs, and various kinds of fruit; and does not make use of what nature has armed him with, against other animals. He is of a mild and timid nature, and flies from every attack or danger; when, however, he is cut off from retreat, he makes a vigorous defence against dogs and men. Its usual attitude is that of sitting on its rump like a dog; and its

voice is a kind of whistle. The flesh is wholesome food. It may be tamed, and is then very gentle and docile. This animal is commonly found in Brazil, Paraguay, Guiana, and in all the extent of South America, from the extremity of Chili to Colombia.

A species of tapir, which has recently been discovered, is very common in the island of Sumatra and the forests of Malacca. Its body is of a dirty white, while the head, legs, and tail are of a deep black. This species has no mane, and its proboscis is from seven to eight inches long.

Among the numerous fossil remains of a former world are found fragments of tapirs of enormous size. One of these extinct species, the Gigantic Tapir, must have been more than equal to the elephant in magnitude.



THE MUSTARD-PLANT.

THE seed of this plant, as every one knows, is of a hot and biting taste. With us it is small and feeble, but in Palestine, and other eastern countries, it grows to a much greater height. The Jewish Talmud mentions an instance of a mustard-plant which was so high and so large, that its branches covered a tent. It also mentions another so large and strong, that its stalk

was sufficient to bear a man climbing upon it; and another, whose principal branch bore three barrels of mustard-seed. In our climate we can form little idea of the rapidity of the growth of plants in warm climates which are annual or biennial; in one season they will grow to the height of thirty or forty feet.



MARIE ANTOINETTE.

THIS unfortunate princess, wife of Louis XVI., of France, was the daughter of Francis I., Emperor of Germany, and Maria Theresa, of Austria, and was born at Vienna, in 1755. Her accomplishments, talents, grace, virtue, and uncommon loveliness, fitted her for the queen of a gallant nation, and as such she would have been honored in France, had she lived before oppression had roused the people to madness. Her mother, in a letter to her future husband, after alluding to the care with which she had formed her mind, says, "Above all things, I have recommended to her humility before God, because I am convinced that it is impossible for us to secure the happiness of the subjects confided to us, without love to Him, who destroys the sceptres and the thrones of kings according to his will."

The marriage took place at Versailles, May 16, 1770, and was celebrated with uncommon splendor; but immediately after the ceremony, a thunder-storm of unparalleled violence broke over the palace of Ver-

sailles, darkened the surrounding scenery, and struck terror into the hearts of the people for miles around. On the thirtieth of May, the festivities of Paris were saddened by a most terrible accident; a number of citizens being crushed to death in the Rue Royale, by some mismanagement on the part of the proper authorities. Fifty-three persons were found dead, and three hundred more were dangerously injured.

The magnanimity of Marie Antoinette displayed itself soon after her elevation to the throne, upon the death of Louis XV. An officer of the *gardes du corps* (body-guard) who had given her offence on some former occasion, expressed his intention of resigning his commission, but the queen forbade him. "Remain," said she; "forget the past. Far be it from the Queen of France to avenge the injuries of the dauphiness." She devoted herself to the interests of her people with an assiduity unparalleled in a sovereign of her age, yet, becoming obnoxious to the court party, her character was assailed in every shape and quarter. She

was accused of setting on foot conspiracies which never existed, and of entertaining views which never entered her mind. She was termed the *Austrian*, and it was openly asserted, as well as privately insinuated, that her heart was estranged from the country of her husband, and her mind solely occupied with the interests of her native land.

In her conduct there was matter for gentle reproof, but none for malevolent accusation. A gayety which sometimes degenerated into levity, a passion for fashionable novelties, and an unwary contempt for court formalities, instead of being regarded as the foibles and imprudences of a young and innocent mind, were construed into evidences of the existence of loose principles, unbridled extravagance, and hatred for the nation. She was likewise charged with pettishness under reproof, and we can readily conceive how a female of so high a rank, conscious of the purity of her intentions, and perpetually assailed by reckless cavillers, assumed, in reply to the unworthy insinuations of her enemies, the tone which her virtue and her birth appeared to warrant. The affair of the diamond necklace created an extraordinary sensation. A jeweller, at Paris, demanded payment for a necklace so costly that the finances of a queen would hardly warrant its purchase. The result of an examination was the proof of the queen's integrity. A lady, of the stature and complexion of the queen, had succeeded in disguising herself, and passing herself off as Antoinette, upon a cardinal, in a midnight meeting in the park of Versailles.

On the sixth of October, 1789, the mob broke into the palace of Versailles, murdered some of the body-guards, and threatened the queen in the most frightful language. At midnight she received a letter from a friendly clergyman, advising her to seek safety in flight, as her life would be sacrificed early the next morning. She resolved to remain, and destroyed the warning letter. She heard the footsteps of the ruffian rabble,—she thought her time had come,—but her life was saved. The progress of the ruffians was arrested at the very door of her bed-chamber, where her faithful guardsmen laid down their lives to secure for their queen a retreat to the chamber of the king. The king and queen showed themselves with their children in the balcony. The mass of heads beneath, for a moment, ceased to be agitated—but it was only for a moment. Silence was broken by a thousand tongues: "No children! no children!—the queen! the queen, alone!" This was a trying mo-

ment; but Antoinette had firmness for the crisis. Putting her son and daughter into her husband's arms, she advanced alone into the balcony. A spectacle like this filled the fierce people with admiration, and thundering shouts of *Vive la reine!* (Long live the queen!) succeeded to the imprecations of the preceding moment. Such is the fickleness of a mob. The march to Paris was a succession of terrors. The heads of the two faithful guardsmen, elevated on pikes, met the eyes of the poor queen as she looked from her carriage-windows!

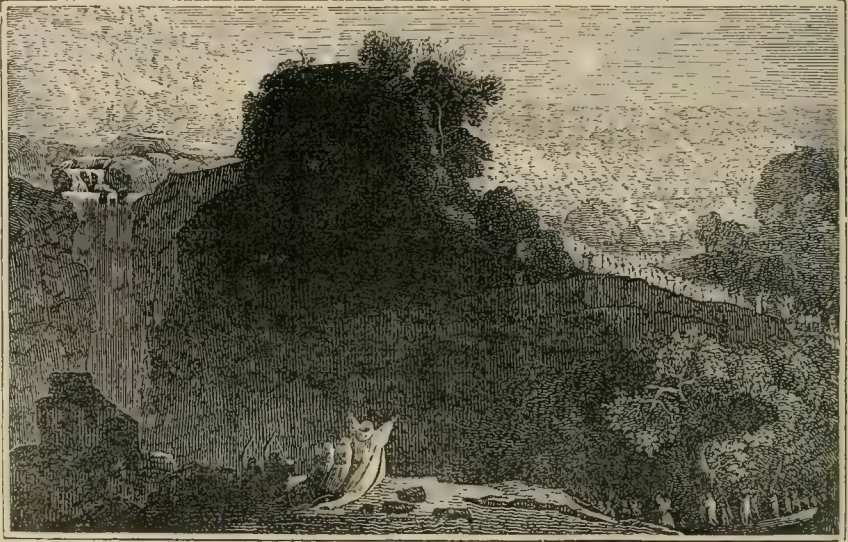
The fate of Antoinette darkened rapidly. With the king she fled to Varennes,—with him was brought back to Paris. Her courage did not fail in the scene of the Legislative Assembly, before which body she was present with her husband, heard his deposition pronounced, and then went into the Temple, where he was imprisoned. Here, where the light of heaven faintly fell through grated windows, surrounded by her family, she appeared to feel entire resignation to the will of Him, on whom the happiness of the humblest individual depends. When she heard the condemnation of the king, from the lips of the royal victim, she had the firmness to congratulate him on the speedy delivery from trouble which awaited him. The eternal separation from her son did not shake her firmness, and, with a heart apparently unbroken, she was consigned to the loathsome depths of a dungeon, August 5, 1793. The accusations brought against the unhappy queen, on her trial, were all unfounded, and merely advanced because her enemies had still respect enough for justice to mimic its forms in their guilty court. She was charged with having squandered the public money, and with leaguings in secret with the foreign enemies of France. The clearness of her innocence, the falsehood and frivolity of witnesses, the eloquence of defenders, were of no avail,—Marie Antoinette was doomed to die upon the scaffold!

The expression of her countenance, as she passed to the place of execution, awed the bloodthirsty populace; but the once matchless beauty of that noble countenance was gone forever. One unacquainted with the ravages of grief could not have believed that the haggard and forsaken being whom they led to sacrifice was the same young queen who, a short time before, held in thrall the chivalry of France, by her exquisite loveliness, her winning grace, and sportive gayety. Antoinette cast back a long last look at the Tuilleries;—a look

which told of sorrowful remembrance, and of agonizing emotion ;—then, with an air of dignified resignation, she ascended the scaffold. “My God!” cried she as she kneeled on that fatal platform, “e lighten

and affect my executioner! Adieu, my children—my beloved ones—forever! I am going to your father!”

This noble woman perished in her thirty-eighth year, October 16, 1793.



THE DRUIDS.

AMONG the ancient inhabitants of England and of France, formerly called Gaul, as well as among some other nations of antiquity, the Druids were priests or ministers of religion. They were also the instructors of the young, and were the only learned men of the nations to which they belonged. Although these men flourished long after civilization had made great progress among neighboring nations, yet they did not make use of writing, but their scholars were obliged to get by heart all their lessons from hearing them repeated by their masters, the Druids.

In general, little was known about very ancient tribes and nations, until the Romans invaded their countries and conquered them. So it is from the Romans that we have derived our knowledge of the habits, character and religion of the Druids. The Druids of Britain were very celebrated. There has been much dispute about the derivation of the word *Druid*, but it is most probable that it comes from an old British word, *dru*, meaning *oak*, because the Druids held the oak-tree almost sacred ; it was their favorite tree, and their groves contained no other.

Little is known concerning them before

the age of Julius Cæsar, the Roman, who invaded Britain after having subdued Gaul, about fifty-four years before Christ. Cæsar says that they were divided into several classes ; the priests, the soothsayers, the poets, the judges, and instructors of youth. The priests, those Druids who were called so by way of distinction, had the charge of the religious ceremonies. They worshipped their gods, and offered sacrifices to them upon altars. Their temples, or places of worship, were very singular. They were generally circles of vast standing pillars, over which they sometimes laid huge stones, making a circle in the air. In the middle stood the altar-stone. Of this kind was the celebrated Stone-henge, near Salisbury, in England. In the island of Anglesey, near the northern extremity of Wales, there are Druidical pillars yet remaining. This island is supposed to have been the residence of the chief, or arch-Druid, of Britain.

The Druids had a very wrong idea about religion. They thought that the common people could not understand the simple and rational principles of religion, and so they invented foolish fables and superstitions, and deluded the masses to worship the sun,

and be idolaters. They had fires sacred to the sun, like the priests of Baal, of whom we read in the Bible. The Druids were criminal enough to sacrifice human beings to their gods, and this cruelty, which they persisted in, notwithstanding all remonstrance, was the cause of their destruction. The poets, or bards, according to some, did not properly belong to the class of Druids, because they did not mix religion with their songs. They inspired the people to warlike actions, and sang the praise of patriotism and bravery. The Druids studied astronomy, and made great proficiency in the science.

We all know what terror and astonishment an eclipse, or any singular appearance in the sky, creates among an ignorant people, who do not know the causes of these things, or the means of finding out, beforehand, at what time they will happen. Persons among such people, who can foretell any occurrence, even a change of the seasons, are looked upon as inspired with a knowledge more than human. By such arts the Druids extended and strengthened their influence over the people. The soothsayers even pretended to be acquainted with the intentions of Divine Providence! The Roman soothsayers, or fortune-tellers, pretended to foretell events by the appearance of the entrails of beasts that were sacrificed on their altars; in the same way, but with much greater cruelty, the Druidical soothsayers examined the bleeding bodies of human victims.

When the Roman Suetonius determined to put an end not only to the ceremonies of the Druids, but to the priests themselves, they took refuge in the island of Anglesea. Here they were determined to make a bold resistance. Having some hopes of gaining a victory over the Romans, they kindled large fires, in which they intended to consume the Roman prisoners, should they take any. Suetonius landed near Parthamel. The Druids, in great numbers, encircled the army of their countrymen, urging them to be brave, and praying for the vengeance of Heaven upon the invaders. The scene was rendered more terrific to the Romans by the appearance of the British women, who were dressed in black, and ran yelling to and fro, brandishing torches. However, the Romans were brave men, and they conquered. They cut down the sacred groves of oak; they demolished the temples of the priests, and cruelly threw them into their own fires.

The Druids, who were the judges in all cases which required a recourse to law, settled these matters by their opinion, from

which there was no appeal except to the Arch-Druid. As the Druids were thought to receive knowledge and instruction directly from the gods, they had the power of making, altering, and executing laws. Any persons who desired to possess the great power of the order, could become Druids, but only by a long course of very strict study, and a life of privation, which not many had patience to go through.

The schools of the Druids, in Britain, were very famous before the invasion of the Romans. Even youth from Gaul came thither to be instructed in the branches which they taught. Scholars took an oath not to betray the secrets and learning which they were taught; and thus we may see how selfish was the system of the Druids, and how much opposed it was to the extension of knowledge. Students always resided with their teachers and school-fellows, and were forbidden to converse with any others. Academies were numerous, one being attached to almost every temple of note. Instruction was conveyed in verse. The whole circle of the sciences, with which the Druids were acquainted, were taught in twenty-thousand verses, which pupils were twenty years in committing to memory.

The Druids measured time not by the days, but the nights, guided by the changes of the moon. They had so great a veneration for the oak, that they never performed any ceremony without being adorned with garlands woven of its leaves. Those who professed a knowledge of medicine would never betray the secrets by which they cured the sick. They were, without doubt, only acquainted with the healing powers of a few herbs. They placed great faith in the virtues of the plant mistletoe, probably from its growing on the oak-tree. They called it by a British name, meaning "all-heal." The efficacy of this plant they thought depended on certain ceremonies to be observed in gathering it. Among the annual festivals of the Gauls and Britons was that in which the Arch-Druid cut the mistletoe from the oak. This ceremony was conducted with great pomp. When they found an oak which had the rare plant upon it, they made preparations for a banquet beneath. Two milk-white bulls were tied to it by the horns, and then the Arch-Druid, dressed in a snowy robe, ascended the oak, and detached the mistletoe with a golden knife. Sacrifice and feasting followed. On May-day a festival in honor of the sun was held. The sun was called Bel, Belinus, and some other names.



THE OPOSSUM.

THIS curious animal is peculiar to North America, but is seldom found north of Pennsylvania. Its chief distinction is a pouch under the belly of the female, which serves as a convenient pocket for the little creatures to get into, while young. It has also fifty teeth, and its hind feet are actually rendered hands, by short, fleshy, and opposable thumbs, which, together with the prominences in the palms of these posterior hands, enable the animal to take firm hold of objects which no one would think could be thus grasped. An opossum can cling by these *feet-hands* to a smooth silk handkerchief, or a silk dress, with great security, and climb up by the same. In like manner he can ascend by a skein of silk, or even a few threads. The slightest projection, or doubling, of any material, affords him a certain mean of climbing to any desired height. Another curious and amusing peculiarity is his prehensile tail; by simply curving this at the extremity, the opossum sustains his weight, and depends from a limb of a tree, or other projecting body, and hanging in full security, gathers fruit, or seizes any prey within his reach; to regain his position on the limb, it is only necessary to make a little stronger effort with the tail, and throw his body upward at the same time.

The mouth of the opossum is very wide when open, yet the animal does not drink by lapping, but by suction. The wideness of the mouth is rendered very remarkable when the female is approached, while in company with her young. She then silently drops the lower jaw to the greatest distance it is capable of moving, retracts the angles of the lips, and shows the whole of her teeth, which thus present a formidable array. She then utters a muttering kind of snarl, but does not snap, until the hand, or other

object, be brought very close. If this be a stick, or any hard or insensible body, she seldom closes her mouth on it after the first or second time, but maintains the same gaping and snarling appearance, even when it is thrust into her mouth. At the same time, the young, if they have attained any size, either exhibit their signs of defiance, take refuge in the pouch of the mother, or, clinging to various parts of her body, hide their faces amidst her long hair.

The general color of the opossum is a whitish gray. From the top of the head along the back and upper part of the sides, the gray is darkest, and this color is produced by the intermixture of coarse white hairs, upwards of three inches long, with a shorter, closer, and softer hair, which is white at base, and black for about half an inch at tip. The whole fur is of a woolly softness, and the long white hairs diverging considerably, allow the back parts to be seen, so as to give the general gray color already mentioned. On the face the wool is short, and of a smoky white color; that on the belly is of the same character, but is longer on the fore and hind legs; the color is nearly black from the body to the digits, which are naked beneath. The tail is thick and black, for upwards of three inches at base, and is covered by small hexagonal scales, having short rigid hairs interspersed throughout its length, which are but slightly perceptible at a little distance. The opossum is generally killed for the sake of its flesh and fat. Its wool is of considerable length and fineness during the winter season, and we should suppose that in manufactures it would be equal to the sheep's wool which is wrought into coarse hats.

The opossum is a nocturnal and timid animal, depending for his safety more on

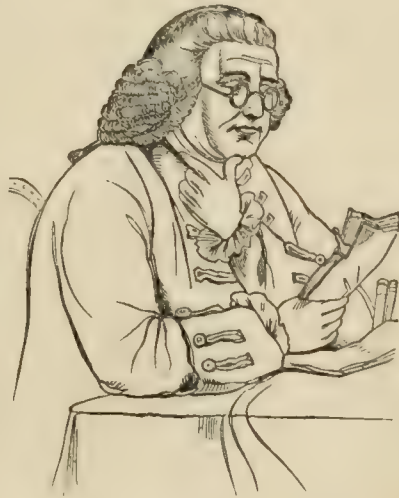
cunning than strength. His motions are slow, and his walk, when on the ground, entirely plantigrade, which gives an appearance of clumsiness to his movements. When on the branches of trees, he moves with much greater ease, and with perfect security from sudden gusts of wind; even were his weight sufficient to break the limb on which he rests, there is no danger of his falling to the earth, unless when on the lowest branch, as he can certainly catch, and securely cling to, the smallest intervening twigs, either with the hands or the extremity of the tail.

The food of the opossum varies very much, according to circumstances. It preys upon birds, various small quadrupeds, eggs, and, no doubt, occasionally upon insects. The poultry yards are sometimes visited, and much havoc committed, by the opossum, as, like the weasel, this animal is fonder of cutting the throats and sucking the blood of a number of individuals, than of satisfying his hunger by eating the flesh of one. Among the wild fruits, the persimmon is a great favorite, and it is generally after this fruit is in perfection that the opossum is killed by the country people for the market. At that season it is very fat, and but little difference is to be perceived between the flesh and that of a young pig.

The hunting of the opossum is a favorite sport with the country people, who frequently go out with their dogs at night, after the autumnal frosts have begun, and the persimmon fruit is in its most delicious state. The opossum, as soon as he discovers the approach of the enemy, lies perfectly close to the branch, or places himself snugly in the angle where two limbs separate from each other. The dogs, however, soon announce the fact of his presence, by their baying, and the hunter, ascending the tree, discovers the branch upon which the animal is seated, and begins to shake it with great violence, to alarm, and cause him to relax his hold. This is soon effected, and the opossum, attempting to escape to another limb, is pursued immediately, and the shaking is renewed with greater violence, until at length the terrified quadruped allows himself to drop to the ground, where hunters or dogs are prepared to despatch him.

The usual haunts of the opossum are thick forests, and their dens are generally in hollows of decayed trees, where they pass the day asleep, and sally forth, mostly after nightfall, to seek food. They are occasionally seen out during daylight, especially when they have young ones of considerable

size, too large to be carried in the maternal pouch. The female then offers a very singular appearance, as she toils along with twelve or sixteen cubs, nearly of the size of rats, each with a turn of his tail around the root of the mother's, and clinging on her back and sides with paws, hands, and mouth. It is exceedingly curious and interesting to see the young, when the mother is at rest, take refuge in the pouch, whence one or two of them may be seen peeping out, with an air of great comfort and satisfaction. The mother in this condition, or at any time in defence of her young, will make battle, biting with much keenness and severity, for which her long canine teeth are well suited.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

THE history of this great man is very interesting, and very instructive, for it shows how a poor boy, by diligence, honesty, and good behavior, may grow up rich, useful, respected, and happy.

Franklin was born at Boston, on the 7th of January, 1706, and was the youngest but two of seventeen children. He was first apprenticed to a tallow-chandler; but he left this employment, and learned the trade of a printer. He established himself in Philadelphia for a time, and then he went to England, where he supported himself by his trade, and at the same time acquired a great deal of knowledge.

He returned to America, and set up the business of a printer. He devoted himself

with great industry to his employment, and soon won the confidence of all around him. He became the publisher of a paper; and, as he had an excellent talent at writing, he composed for it many interesting articles. Thus the paper acquired celebrity, and Franklin flourished.

While in the midst of business, he loved study, and not only learned the French language, but he made himself acquainted with history, science, and other matters. When the troubles with England were approaching, he was sent to that country as an agent for Pennsylvania, and he was afterwards intrusted with the concerns of other colonies. The business, thus confided to him, he managed with great ability and faithfulness, and thus the eyes of his countrymen were turned towards him, as one upon whom they could rely in the hour of trial.

Franklin returned to America, and filled many offices of high trust, and thus acquired the respect and love of everybody. Nor was his whole time devoted to mere active

business. The subject of electricity engaged his attention; and at last he set a kite flying during a thunder-storm, and, placing a key near the string by which it was held, he saw small sparks, like lightning, issuing from the key, and giving slight shocks to his hand. Thus he proved that lightning is produced by electricity.

This wonderful discovery gave Franklin great fame; and when he was afterwards sent to Europe, as ambassador of the United States, he received great honors. Once he was at the French court, and being dressed in plain, Quaker-like clothes, some lady asked, "Who is that queer man?" "Hush! hush!" said the gentleman addressed; "that is Dr. Franklin, who bottles up thunder and lightning!"

Franklin lived to the age of 84, and he has left behind a name which is respected throughout the civilized world. His writings are numerous, and of a very useful kind; among them his Proverbs, uttered by Poor Richard, and his Life, by his own hand, are particularly valuable and interesting.

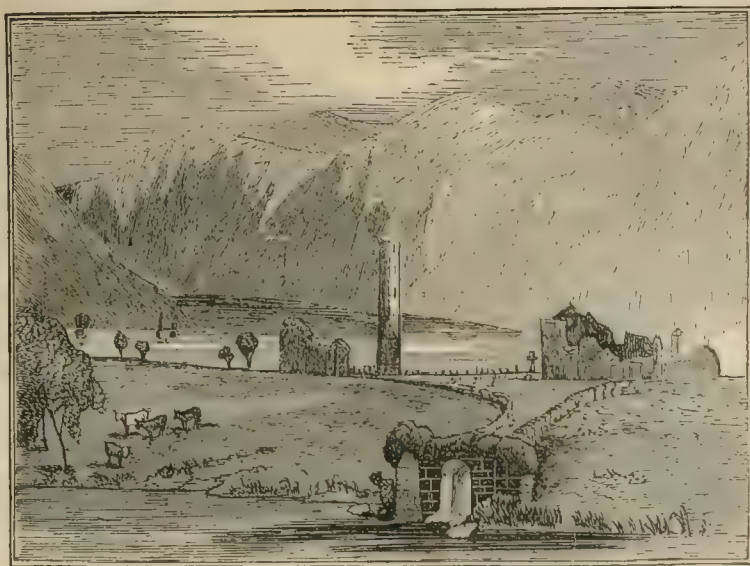


THE STEEPLE CHASE.

THEY have a curious amusement in England called the "Steeple Chase." A number of gentlemen fix upon a spot, a mile or two from some church, and at an appointed time they all set out on horseback, to see which will get to the church first. Away they go, over hedges and ditches, over hills and valleys, over rocks and rivulets! They do not take to the highway, for the spot chosen is always one which has no direct road to the church; so each one chooses his route, and it is wonderful to see how madly

they all dash on. Nothing seems to impede their wild career; the horses enter heartily into the frolic, and seem to be afraid of nothing. Thousands of people are present to witness the sport, and they cheer the racers by their loud and boisterous applause.

This is a very favorite kind of sport in England, but it is very dangerous. The riders are often thrown from their horses, and accidents fatal to man and beast often happen.



Cloch Theach, in the vale of Glendalough.

ROUND TOWERS OF IRELAND.

Who has not heard of the *Round Towers of Ireland*; and yet who has been able to solve the mystery which hangs over their origin and the purpose of their erection?

Of these towers, 107 are known to have existed; but probably there were many more. Some are still perfect, others are in ruins. They bear a general resemblance to each other, seeming, therefore, to have had the same object in view; yet there were many minute points of difference. Some were but 40 feet high; others 60, 80, and one 120 feet. The common height is about 80 or 90 feet. Most of them were of a cylindrical form, and were covered with a conical roof. They were generally divided into three stories, with a window to each. The door of entrance was from 6 to 24 feet from the ground; but how this was reached is not known.

In some cases, these towers were built of hewn stone, nicely laid in mortar; in others, the stones are merely hammered; in others still, they are small, and of all shapes, but always firmly cemented by mortar, nearly as hard as the rock itself.

That these towers are very ancient, is clear from the fact that when Ireland was first invaded by the English, in the 12th century, they were then deemed antiquities, and no one was able to tell their origin or design. Some have been used as towers and belfries of churches; but these churches were built in later times, and this use of the towers was, evidently,

but an adaptation of old structures to new purposes. The fact that near these towers, in most cases, ancient churches, or their remains, are found, has led to the belief that they were ecclesiastical structures, erected by the early Christians of Ireland. This idea is exploded by the circumstance that no such buildings have ever been known to be erected in any other part of the world, in connection with the Christian religion; nor is it possible to conjecture for what object, as part of Christian worship, they could have been designed.

The best opinion, on the subject, seems to be this: that these towers were erected by the Phœnicians or Carthaginians, who are known to have had settlements in Ireland before the Christian era; or that they were built by the remote Irish, who bore the name of *Scoti*, and who were of Asiatic origin. The object of these buildings, on this supposition, was the preservation of the *sacred fire*, kindled in honor of Bel, or Baal, a heathen divinity of the East, and who is known to have been worshipped in Ireland. Indeed, to the present day, some of the religious rites of the Irish are evidently but the perpetuation of the ceremonies of their ancestors, turned from their pagan origin and blended with Catholic observances.

This view of the origin and object of the round towers is strongly confirmed by the fact that in their vicinity are still to be

found the well-known relics of ancient paganism, such as the *sun-stone*, the *cromlech*, the *firehouse*, the *spring of sacred water*, necessary in mystic rites, &c. To this it may be added, that in Persia and India, where fire-worship originated, and has had its most extensive and enduring seat, there are towers of various forms and sizes, ascribed, in their origin, to this species of idolatry. It is probable, therefore, that the early settlers of Ireland brought from Asia, their original country, ideas of religion, which became modified in the course of ages, but which, still remaining essentially the same, displayed themselves in the structures which we have described.

The fact that Christian churches, or their remains, are found near these towers in Ireland, does not controvert the opinion we express, as, in the first place, they are evidently more modern than the towers themselves, and are of a different style of architecture; and, moreover, we know that the early Christians often chose, as the seat of their churches, the very sites on which paganism had reared its structures, and frequently adapted the structures themselves to the purposes of Christian worship. In truth, this fact, to which we here allude, rather confirms than opposes the theory we have adopted.



THE GREAT CRATER IN THE MOON.

MODERN improvements in the telescope seem to have given a new impulse and interest, everywhere, to astronomical research. We have a remarkable description of one of those vast caverns or *craters* in the moon, from fifty to sixty miles in diameter, to which the telescope of Lord Rosse has introduced the inhabitants of our earth. To this crater the name of *Tycho* has been

given: and the following highly graphic, though somewhat indistinct, account of it is taken from Dr. Nichol's "Contemplation of the Solar System."

"Wandering through a district, perhaps the most chaotic in the moon, where ranges, peaks, round mountains with flat tops, are intermingled in apparently inextricable confusion, where there is no plain larger than a common field, and that rent by fissures and strewn with blocks that have fallen from the overhanging precipices; we descry in the horizon what seems an immense ridge, stretching further than the eye can carry us, and reflecting the sun's rays with dazzling lustre. On approaching this wall, through a country still as toilsome, it appears not so steep, but to have an outward sloping, which, however rough, is yet practicable to the strong of head and firm in knee. Ascend, then, O traveller! Averting your eyes from the burning sun, and having gained the summit, examine the landscape beyond. Landscape! It is a type for the most horrible dream—a thing to be thought of only with a shudder.

"We are on the top of a circular precipice, which seems to have enclosed a space fifty-five miles in diameter from all the living world forever and ever. Below, where the wall casts its shadow, it is black as Orcus; no eye can penetrate its utter gloom; but where daylight has touched the bare chasm, its character is disclosed. Giddy it must be to stand on the summit of Mont Blanc, or the Jungfrau, or Teneriffe; but suppose Jacques Balmat, when he set the first foot on that loftiest Alpine peak, had found on the other side, not the natural mountain he had ascended, but one unbroken precipice thirteen thousand feet deep, below which a few terraces disturbed the uniformity, and at some ten miles distant from its base, a chasm deeper, from where he looked, by two thousand feet, than Mont Blanc is elevated above the level of the sea—would even the stout Swiss have brought home his senses? or rather would he have returned at all, and not lain there to this hour, fascinated as by ten thousand rattlesnakes!

"But onwards and to the bottom of this mysterious place! No foot of man can take us there, so that we must borrow a wing from the condor. Off, then—down, down, and arrive! It is indeed a terrible place! There are mountains in it, especially a central one, four thousand feet high, and five or six concentric ridges of nearly the same height encircling the chasm; but

the eye can rest on nothing except that impassable wall, without breach, with only a few pinnacles on its top, towering seventeen thousand feet aloft on every side, at the short distance of twenty-seven miles, and baffling our escape into the larger world. Nothing here but the scorching sun and burning sky; no rain ever refreshes it, no cloud ever shelters it; only benign night with its stars, and the mild face of the earth. But we tarry no longer; so off again, and rest for a moment on the top of the highest pinnacle. Look around now, and away from Tycho. What a scene! Those round hills with flat tops are craters, and the whole visible surface is studded with them; all of less diameter than Tycho, but probably as deep.

"Look yet further. What are those dazzling beams, like liquid silver, passing in

countless multitudes away from us, along the whole surface of the moon? Favorites they are of the sun; for he illumines them more than all else besides, and assimilates them to his burning glory. And see! they go on every side from Tycho. In his very centre, overspreading the very chasm we have left, there is, now that the sun has further ascended, a plain of brilliant light; and, outside the wall, at this place, at least, a large space of similar splendor from which these rays depart. What they are, we know not, but they spread over, at least, one third of the moon's whole surface. And so this chasm, which, in first rashness, we termed a hideous dream, is bound indissolubly to that orb, on which, when the heart is pained, one loves to look and be consoled, and through her to the beneficent universe."



THE HUMBLE-BEE.

THE humble-bee, which is very often called *bumble-bee*, owes its name to the humming noise by which its flight is always announced.

It lives in societies of twenty, fifty, or one hundred together. They dwell in hollow trees, cavities of the earth, or tufts of moss. They collect honey from plants, and store it up in cells, though it is doubtful whether they intend it for winter provision. They are remarkably subject to torpidity, and, towards the end of autumn, they may be seen, languid and inactive, on the few flowers that yet remain in the gardens and

woods, quite incapable of defending themselves from injury.

The life of nearly the whole swarm of humble-bees seems to end with the season. Only a few individuals are preserved, and these by accident; how they survive the winter is not known. Very few of them appear in spring; and it is not till the heat of summer, or rather later, that they become numerous. The manners of the humble-bees differ from those of the honey-bees in many important points. They never kill their drones, as the latter do, and are much less disposed to make use of their stings.



THE MAMERTINE PRISON AT ROME.

THIS celebrated prison is one of the oldest of all the antiquities of Rome. It was constructed, as we are told by Livy, by Ancus Martius, about 600 years before Christ.

Juvenal, in one of his satires, refers to those virtuous and happy times, under the kings and tribunes, when one prison was sufficient to contain all the criminals of Rome; alluding, no doubt, to this ancient structure. It is a dungeon, under ground, cut out of the solid rock, with an upper story of rude stone masonry. A church is now built over the whole, and the curious visitor, who wishes to explore these dreary precincts, descends a flight of steps from the church, into the upper story of the prison, where he finds himself in a cell about twenty feet long and thirty wide. This is now converted into an oratorio.

This cell has no window, but is kept constantly lighted with blazing tapers, and the walls glitter with shrines and offerings. In the floor is a circular opening, which leads to the frightful dungeon beneath. Into this horrid receptacle the prisoners were thrown, who were condemned to be starved to death, according to the barbarous practice of the Romans. In this manner died Jugurtha, the king of Numidia, whose history has been so ably written by Sallust. Here Lentulus, Cethegus, and other accomplices of Catiline, were strangled. Sejanus, the minister of Tiberius, ended his days here.

It was the general custom of the Romans to lead captive kings and princes, in their

triumphal processions, through the streets of the city, and then to cast them into the Mamertine dungeon to die. This practice alone is sufficient to display the barbarous and ferocious manners of a people whose military glory has dazzled the eyes of the universe.

The Mamertine prison is now consecrated to St. Peter, the apostle. According to the traditions of the Romans, St. Peter and St. Paul were both confined in this dungeon by order of Nero. The former, during his imprisonment, converted his two jailers, Processus and Martinianus, to Christianity. These persons desired to be baptized; but there was no water in the prison, and it was forbidden to introduce any for the use of the apostles. In this emergency, a fountain miraculously burst up from the ground, and the apostle baptized his converts.

In confirmation of this story, a spring of water is shown actually bubbling up out of the rock! The pillar to which St. Peter was bound in the dungeon is also exhibited to the eyes of believers. The people kneel before these venerated objects, and never suspect that the story is an invention of modern times, adapted to a spot which has been famous from the earliest ages of the city.

To illustrate the manner in which these legends have their origin, we may relate another fable, of St. Peter. It is stated that he went to Rome to oppose Simon Magus, or Simon the Magician, who is mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles. Their first interview was held in the presence of Nero.

Simon flew up into the air, in the sight of the emperor and all the people. But the devil, who raised him, on hearing the name of Jesus invoked by the apostle, was struck with such terror, that he let him fall to the ground and break his legs.

There is little doubt this story is taken from Suetonius, who speaks of a person, in the public sports, having undertaken to fly in the presence of Nero. In this attempt he fell to the ground, and spattered the emperor with his blood.



ROBIN GOODFELLOW.

THE superstitious legends which have come down to us from antiquity, are among the most curious points of human history. Of these, England has furnished us with an ample share; and Robin Goodfellow, sometimes called *Puck*, takes a prominent place in these mystic annals. He was imagined to be a little fairy being, who haunted the rural districts of the country. He is described as a very roguish and meddlesome sprite, not altogether malicious, but fond of playing troublesome tricks, and doing petty mischief.

The country people believed that Robin might be kept in good humor by bribes;

and hence they were accustomed to set bowls of curds and cream standing for him on the tables and dressers, when they went to bed at night. The next morning, if the bowls were found empty, they felt certain that Robin Goodfellow had eaten the contents. They never thought of the cats and rats.

An old writer, describing this superstition, says, "And if that the bowls of curds and cream were not duly set out for Robin Goodfellow, the friar, and Sisse the dairy-maid, why, then the pottage was burnt next day in the pot, or the cheeses would not curdle, or the butter would not come, or

the ale in the vat never would have good head." Reginald Scot, in his "Discovery of Witchcraft," also says, "Your grandam's maids were wont to set a bowl of milk for him, for his pains in grinding malt and mustard, and sweeping the house at midnight. This white bread and milk was his standing fee."

Shakespeare, in his wild and romantic play of the "A Midsummer Night's Dream," thus describes this frolicsome creature:—

"Either I mistake your shape and meaning quite,
Or else you are that shrewd and knavish sprite,
Called Robin Goodfellow. Are you not he
That fright the maidens of the villagery,
Skim milk, and sometimes labor in the quern,
And bootless make the breathless housewife churn?
And sometimes make the drink to bear no balm,
Mislead night-wanderers, laughing at their harm?
Those that Hobgoblin call you, and sweet Puck,
You do their work, and they shall have good luck."

Drayton, in his poem entitled "Nymphidia," also introduces this familiar personage.

"He meeteth Puck, which most men call
Hobgoblin, and on him doth fall.
This Puck seems but a dreaming dolt,
Still walking like a ragged colt,
And oft out of a bush doth bolt,
Of purpose to deceive us;
And leading us, makes us to stray,
Long winter's nights, out of the way,
And when we stick in mire and clay,
He doth with laughter leave us."

One of his pranks is thus described by an old writer: "*How Robin went in the shape of a fiddler to a wedding, and of the sport that he had there*: First, he put out the candles, and then, being dark, he struck the men good boxes on the ears. They, thinking it had been those that did sit next them, fell a-fighting one with the other, so that there was not one of them but had either a broken head or a bloody nose. At this Robin laughed heartily. The women did not escape him; for the handsomest he kissed; the others he pinched, and made them scratch one another as if they had been cats. Candles being lighted again, they all were friends, and fell again to dancing, and after to supper. Supper being ended, a great posset was brought; at this Robin Goodfellow's teeth did water, for it looked so lovely that he could not keep from it. To attain his wish, he did turn himself to a bear. Both men and women, seeing a bear amongst them, ran away, and left the whole posset to Robin Goodfellow, who quickly made an end of it!"

Puck, or *puke*, is an old Gothic word, signifying a spirit. In New York, a ghost is called a *spook*, from its Dutch name. Robin Goodfellow's other appellation of *hobgoblin* was originally *hoggoblin*, because he was always hopping and frisking about.



WATER.

THERE are few things in nature so beautiful as water; and this beauty is increased by the variety of forms in which it appears. It first comes to us in the shape of rain, descending from the heavens. It is then broken into myriads of drops, each one of which is a little round shining globe. Sometimes it is frozen, and comes sailing down from the clouds in white crystals, which we call snow. Collected in large masses, water forms seas, lakes, and rivers. So great is the quantity of it on the earth, that it is said to cover three quarters of the surface of the globe.

When at rest, the surface of the water becomes smooth as a mirror, and reflects objects which stand along its border, or are suspended over it. How charmingly the banks of a lake are often pictured in its bosom!

When water is in motion, it presents a great variety of aspects; the sea, lashed by the tempest, rises into furious and foaming waves, sometimes dashing ships in pieces, and bursting with terrific roar against the rocky margin of the deep.

Water flowing over the land is called a *river*; if the stream be small, it is called a *rill*, *rivulet*, or *brook*. What can be more charming than a little stream of water just setting out upon its course! It rises in some quiet spring, and issues timidly forth, turning hither and thither to avoid the stones, and occasionally falling headlong over some obstacle that crosses its path. It goes on and on, increasing by receiving other streams into its bosom, and, flowing broader and deeper, at last loses itself in the sea.

How pleasing* is all this to the eye; and how many agreeable images does it suggest to the mind! How like to childhood is the rivulet—toddling and tumbling in its course at the beginning! How like to manhood is the deep, broad river—flowing bravely on for a time, and at last disappearing in the ocean!

In these, and many other ways, this element contributes to our pleasure. We speak not now of its utility, but only of its beauty. We could not indeed live without

water; but even if we could, how large a share of our happiness would be destroyed if we could not see it! If the clouds were to disappear,—if the dew that sprinkles the shrub and flower, as with diamonds, was to vanish,—if sea and lake and river, and stream and waterfall, were to be annihilated,—if rain, snow, and mist, were to come no more, how large a share of the pleasure and poetry of the world would be gone forever!



THE NEW PLANET, NEPTUNE.

ONE of the most interesting discoveries ever made is that of a new planet, which has been found to exist in the heavens, during the last year (1847). The mode in which this discovery was accomplished was interesting and wonderful.

Our readers all know, that the shining points in the heavens which we see at night, and which are called *stars*, are in reality worlds; some of them much larger than this earth on which we live. These stars are divided into two kinds—*fixed stars* and *planets*. The former are at such an immense distance, as to defy calculation, and even conception. They do not generally appear to move, but continue fixed in their places from age to age. The latter are seen to revolve around the sun, like our own earth; they belong, in fact, to the solar system, which consists of the sun and a brotherhood of twelve worlds, which forever are moving in circles around it.

Now, these planets are of different sizes,

some being larger and some smaller than our world. They are all at immense distances from us, and from the sun. They are also of different *densities*, some being nearly as heavy as iron, and others as light as cork.

The study of the heavenly bodies, called *astronomy*, is one of the most lofty and sublime to which the mind can be devoted; and this study has brought to light many curious and wonderful things. Though the planets are so far off, philosophers have been able to ascertain their size, their density, how often they turn round on their own axis, and how often they perform their circuit around the sun. This knowledge is gained partly by the telescope, but chiefly by calculations in figures, called *mathematics*. Among the planets, there is one called *Uranus*, which was discovered by Herschel, in the year 1781; it is not visible to the naked eye, and can only be seen by the telescope. The distance of this planet from

the sun is about eighteen hundred millions of miles, and its average distance from us about the same. Yet philosophers have found out some strange things in regard to this far-off planet. They perceived that, in moving around the sun, it deviated slightly from its orbit, or regular track.

This led to the supposition that there must be some planet in that quarter which attracted it, and drew it aside, thus giving it an irregular and bending course. How was this planet to be discovered? The telescopes had swept the heavens over without finding it. Where the spaces are so immense, it seemed a hopeless task to undertake to find this new world, and which, indeed, was only supposed to exist.

It seems, however, that this difficulty did not prevent the attempt being made. Two young men, one by the name of Adams, in England, and another by the name of Le Verrier, in Paris, undertook to trace out the hiding-place of the planet. They proceeded merely on mathematical principles. They got accurate tables of the deviations made by Uranus, and which had been noted down by astronomers; they then calculated how large and how distant the body must be that would thus draw Uranus aside.

The two young men proceeded for several years, making the most profound calculations. Neither of them knew that the other was at work, but they both came to the same conclusion. Le Verrier wrote to an astronomer in Germany, who had a very fine telescope, "Point your glass," said he, "to such a particular quarter of the heavens, and, if my calculations are right, you will there discover a planet of the eighth magnitude." The astronomer did as he was directed, and there, in the precise place which the young man had pointed out, was the new world.

It was of the size he had foretold, and therefore only visible to telescopes of high magnitude. Its distance from us is thirty-five hundred millions of miles.

What an amazing discovery was this! and what power does it show in the human mind, thus to find out a planet hid in the remote depths of space, and that by calculation alone!

Le Verrier, having been the first to make the new star known to the world, was considered as its discoverer. Accordingly, he has received the greatest honors from eminent men in Europe; he is now esteemed one of the ablest mathematicians of the age.



MATTHEW HOPKINS.

ABOUT two hundred and fifty years ago, the reality of witchcraft was very generally admitted throughout Europe. The belief in the active agency of the Spirit of Evil in human affairs, had existed among Christians from the earliest period, and the legends of saints, their trials and temptations, in which the devil plays so important a part, served to extend and confirm these popular notions. At last, the direct agency of diabolical powers, and its open manifestation, was assumed, and, at the period of which we speak, was held to be a point of Christian faith. The pious Baxter considered the disbelief of witchcraft as equivalent to infidelity; the just and sagacious Sir Matthew Hale admitted its reality, and pronounced sentence against those who were convicted of it; and, alas! the pedantic king James I., of England, wrote a book entitled "Dæmonologia, or a Discourse on Witchcraft."

The purpose of this work was to prove the reality of witchcraft, its prevalence among mankind, its great enormity, and the means of its detection and punishment. Its effect was to extend the belief in witchcraft, and, of course, to multiply the apparent instances of its existence. The insane fancies of diseased minds, unusual phenomena of nature, and the artful machinery of designing malignity, ambition, or hypocrisy, were all laid at Satan's door. Of the horrors that followed, history furnishes a melancholy account. It is supposed that

thirty thousand persons were executed for witchcraft in England, from the year 1500 to 1722. The same dreadful delusion prevailed in other parts of Europe, and extended in due time to this country; and about the year 1692, twenty persons were executed in Salem, Massachusetts, for the crime of witchcraft.

During the period in which this fearful mania was prevalent in England, Matthew Hopkins, denominated *Witch-Finder General*, acted a conspicuous part. He pretended to be a great critic in special marks or signs of witchcraft. Moles, warts, scorbutic spots, were, in his eyes, teats to suckle imps, and were sufficient evidences to bring a victim to the halter. He was assisted by one John Stern, a kindred genius, and in the years 1644, 1645, and 1646, they brought a great number of poor wretches to the fatal tree. Matthew himself hung, in one year, no less than sixty reputed witches of his own county of Essex. He received twenty shillings a head, from the public authorities, for every witch he discovered. The old, the ignorant, and the indigent, — such as could neither plead their own cause nor hire an advocate, — were the miserable victims of his credulity, avarice, and spleen.

When other evidences of guilt were wanting, Hopkins adopted the trial by water, which had been suggested by king James, who remarks, that, "as some persons have renounced their baptism by water, so water refuses to receive them." Those accused of diabolical practices, therefore, were thrown into a pond. If they floated or swam, according to king James' notion, the water refused to receive them, and they were therefore guilty. These were consequently taken out, and burnt or hanged. If they were innocent, they sunk, and were only drowned.

Suspicion was at last turned against Hopkins himself, and the ordeal of swimming was applied in his own case. In consequence of this experiment, he was convicted and executed as a wizard. An allusion to this extraordinary character is made in the third canto of *Hudibras*, who says, —

"Has not the present parliament
A lodger to the devil sent,
Fully empowered to treat about
Finding revolted witches out?
And has he not, within a year,
Hanged threescore of them in one shire?"

Happily for mankind, the belief in witchcraft is now generally treated as a delusion.



GASSENDI.

PIERRE GASSENDI, one of the most famous naturalists and philosophers of France, was born at Chantersier, January 22, 1592, of poor parents. They were, however, wise and virtuous people, and, perceiving the extraordinary gifts of their son, did everything in their power to promote his education. At the age of four years, young Pierre used to declaim little sermons of his own composition, which were quite interesting. At the age of seven, he would steal away from his parents, and spend a great part of the night in observing the stars. This made his friends say he was born an astronomer. At this age, he had a dispute with some boys, whether it was the moon or the clouds that moved so rapidly; to convince them it was the latter, he took them behind a tree, and made them take notice that the moon kept its situation between the same leaves, while the clouds passed on.

This early disposition to observation led his parents to place him under the care of the clergyman of the village, who gave him the first elements of learning. His ardor for study then became extreme; the day was not long enough for him; and he often read a great part of the night, by the light of the lamp that was burning in the church of the village, his family being too poor to allow him candles for his nocturnal studies. He often took only four hours' sleep in the night. At the age of ten, he harangued his bishop in Latin, who was passing through the village on his visitation; and

he did this with such ease and spirit, that the prelate exclaimed, "That lad will, one day or other, be the wonder of his age." The modest and unassuming conduct of Gassendi gave an additional charm to his talents.

In his manners, this remarkable youth was generally silent, never ostentatiously obtruding upon others either the acuteness of his understanding or the eloquence of his conversation. He was never in a hurry to give his opinion, before he knew that of the persons who were conversing with him. When men of learning introduced themselves to him, he was contented with behaving to them with great civility, and was not anxious to surprise them into admiration. The entire tendency of his studies was to make himself wiser and better; and, to have his intention more constantly before his eyes, he had all his books inscribed with these words — *Sapere aude*; "Dare to be wise."

Such was Gassendi's reputation, that at sixteen he was called to teach rhetoric at the seminary of Digne. In 1614, he was

made professor of theology in the same institution; and, two years after, he was invited to fill the chair of divinity and philosophy at Aix. After passing through various promotions, and publishing several works of great merit on philosophical subjects, Gassendi went at last to Paris, where he gained the friendship of Cardinal Richelieu, and shared the admiration of the learned world with the famous philosopher Descartes.

Being appointed a professor of mathematics in the College Royal of Paris, he gave his attention to astronomical subjects, and greatly increased his reputation. After a life devoted to science, in which his achievements were wonderful, he died at Paris, October 14, 1655, aged sixty-three years. Distinguished by his vast learning, his admirable clearness of mind, the diversity of his acquirements, the calmness and dignity of his character, and the amiableness of his manners, Gassendi was one of the brightest ornaments of his age and of human nature.



THE POLYGARS.

THESE people are mountaineers of Hindostan. They inhabit the thick woody fastnesses of that country, and practise robbery as a profession during peace; but, in time of war, they act as regular soldiers

in the defence of their country against invaders.

They derive their name from the *pollams*, or thick forests, which exist abundantly in all the southern part of Hindostan. They

have a sort of government, organized under military leaders, and levy *black mail*, as the Scotch call it, upon their neighbors; that is, they tax them for protecting their property, or for abstaining from plundering it. The people of Hindostan are under the necessity of tolerating this singular banditti; many of the Polygar chieftains are so powerful as to be able to bring 15,000 or

20,000 men into the field. When they are not paid for sparing a territory, they seize the cattle, cut and carry off the crops of grain, &c. If they meet with opposition, they commit murder; yet, when a war breaks out, the inhabitants intrust to these bands, for protection, their old and infirm people, their wives, their children, and their treasures.



APOLLONIUS TYANÆUS.

APOLLONIUS — whose surname of Ty-anæus is derived from Tyana, a city of Cappadocia, in Asia Minor, the place where he was born — is one of the most remarkable characters in all antiquity. By some writers he has been regarded as a philosopher and sage, by some as a fanatic, and by others as a crafty impostor. During his lifetime, he was revered as a divine person, and after his death he was even worshipped as a god.

In the story of his life, it is difficult to separate the facts from the exaggerations and inventions which have been added by his biographers. We shall relate what is said of him by ancient authors, and what was firmly believed by his followers and admirers, though much of this is fabulous.

He was born, as above stated, at Tyana, four years before Christ. Wonders are said to have marked the hour of his birth. A marvellous flash of lightning fell from

the sky, and darted back again; the swans in a meadow flocked round him, clapping their wings with an unearthly sound, &c. But similar tales are told of Mohammed, and numerous other persons, who from obscure birth have raised themselves to celebrity.

The father of Apollonius was a rich citizen of Tyana, and he sent his son to be educated at Tarsus, in Cilicia. But the young man, disliking the luxury and indolence of the people of this place, obtained leave to remove to Ægæ, a town not far distant, where he pursued the study of philosophy, undisturbed by the dissipation of the greater city. He embraced the doctrines of Pythagoras, who, in imitation of the Egyptian priests, subjected his pupils to a strict course of discipline. They were compelled to begin their studies by a silence of five years, during which time, they had the privilege of listening, but were not allowed to speak a single word. Even afterwards, they were expected always to discourse with moderation. They were obliged to throw all their property into a common stock, and to abstain from eating beans, and certain other articles of food.

In conformity to the institutions of Pythagoras, the young philosopher Apollonius refrained from animal food, and lived entirely upon fruits and herbs. He wore linen garments, walked barefooted, and suffered his hair to grow to its full length. In the town of Ægæ was a temple consecrated to the god Æsculapius, which was famous through all the country for its miraculous cures performed upon sick persons by the god of health. The priests of this temple found means to persuade their credulous votaries that the god himself sometimes condescended to become visible to mortals.

Apollonius took up his residence in this temple, and is supposed to have been initiated by the priests into their arts of imposture. He went through a probationary discipline of five years' silence, during which time he travelled and visited various cities of Pamphylia and Cilicia, without speaking a word; yet, by his looks and gestures, conveying to the people instruction and admonition.

At the city of Aspenda, the corn-speculators had made an artificial famine, by buying up all the grain. A riot was the consequence, and the whole city was thrown into confusion. Apollonius was walking in the market-place during the tumult. The men, women, and children, were running up and down, crying out

that they were starving; and the more furious of them armed themselves with firebrands, lighted fagots, and torches, to burn the governor of the city alive. Apollonius made signs to the people to be quiet; he then took a style and tablet, and wrote as follows to the corn-speculators:—

"The earth, the common mother of all, is just. But ye, being unjust, would make her a bountiful mother to yourselves alone. Leave off your dishonest traffic, or you shall no longer be suffered to live." This was read in the presence of the whole multitude, and produced so instantaneous an effect that the speculators immediately opened their stores, and relieved the people. This transaction was exaggerated into a miracle; but we see nothing in it more than the operation of natural causes.

After the termination of his noviciate of silence, Apollonius visited Antioch, Ephesus, and other cities, where he collected a train of disciples, whom he instructed by his lectures and conversation. He also delivered harangues in public, inculcating good morals and orderly habits. He then resolved to travel, by the way of Babylon, to India, in order to visit the Brahmins, whose wisdom was famous all over the East. His disciples had not the courage to accompany him on so long a journey, and he travelled with only three companions. One of these, named Damis, wrote an account of this journey, and informs us that Apollonius understood all languages, even those of animals; and that he could even read the thoughts of men.

On his way to Babylon, Apollonius, seeing a lioness, with eight whelps, killed by some huntsmen, predicted to Damis that the time of their stay with the king of Babylon would be a year and eight months, which of course came to pass. He was received by the monarch with great favor, and so delighted him with the wisdom of his discourse, that the king gave him the privilege of asking twelve gifts. But the philosopher demanded nothing except food for his journey. The king gave him camels to ride upon and to carry his provisions. He crossed the lofty mountains on the north of Hindostan; and here, we are told, on a moonlight night, the travellers met one of those ghosts, or hobgoblins, called by the Greeks an *empusa*. His companions were very much frightened; but Apollonius cried out lustily, and called the hobgoblin all the hard names he could invent, on which it immediately gave a loud shriek and disappeared. Such is the Greek ghost-

story, and it is probably as true as most others of this character.

Having crossed the mountains, they arrived at a city called Taxila, which was the residence of the Indian king. This monarch, Phraortes, a descendant of Porus, paid great attention to Apollonius, and recommended him to the chief Brahmins. These men, we are told, revealed to him all their secrets, and compelled him to recognize their superiority in working miracles. It is supposed that the art of jugglery, which the Hindoos of the present day practise with such astonishing effect, was also well known at that time, and that, by the acquisition of this knowledge, Apollonius was enabled to perform the feats which afterwards gained him the character of a magician.

Having travelled over India, he returned to Europe by the way of the Red Sea. So great was the fame which he had now acquired, that, when he entered Ephesus, the whole population of the city crowded to see him. Even the artisans and laborers left their work to follow him through the streets. The Ephesians were notorious for their profligate manners; Apollonius threatened them with a pestilence unless they reformed. After he had left the city, the plague made its appearance there. The inhabitants sent messengers to Apollonius, who was then at Smyrna, requesting him to drive away the plague. In the twinkling of an eye, we are told, he transported himself to Ephesus, and appeared in the midst of a crowd at the theatre. He pointed to a beggar, and ordered the people to stone him. They immediately showered stones upon him, till he was covered under an enormous heap. The next day, Apollonius ordered them to remove the stones; when lo! the beggar had disappeared, and a dog was found in his place, into which the demon of the plague had entered, and the ravages of the pestilence instantly ceased.

Apollonius then visited Pergamus, and the seat of ancient Troy. He passed a night alone at the tomb of Achilles, where, as we are told, he raised that hero from the dead by the power of an incantation which he had learned in India, and held a conversation with him. He then made a tour through the cities of Greece, visiting Athens, Sparta, Olympia, and other famous places. He addressed the people with great eloquence in the character of a reformer, exhorting them to amend their vicious manners. At Athens, he is said to have cured a demoniac, on which occasion, the demon

who was cast out made his escape with such fury as to throw down a marble statue which stood near him. While he was in the Island of Crete, an earthquake took place; and Apollonius, in the midst of the shock, cried out, "The sea is bringing forth land!" At this instant, we are assured, an island rose out of the sea between Crete and Theræ.

From Crete he went to Rome, where the Emperor Nero had just issued an edict banishing from the city all persons who practised magical arts. Apollonius knew that he should be comprehended in this description; but he was not to be deterred from his purpose. He boldly ventured into the city, and being arrested and carried before the magistrates, he intimidated his judges by restoring to life the dead body of a noble lady, and predicting an eclipse of the sun.

Apollonius next went to Spain, where he raised a sedition against Nero. He then visited Africa, the south of Italy, and Sicily, where he heard of the death of Nero. He afterwards travelled in Egypt and Ethiopia, and sought to discover the sources of the Nile. Vespasian was then endeavoring to establish his power in Egypt. That prince knew the value of such an auxiliary as Apollonius, who appears to have been well practised in the arts of gaining popularity; and he attached him to his interest by consulting him as a sort of divine oracle. In return, the philosopher employed his influence among the people in favor of Vespasian.

He was also consulted on matters of government by Titus, the successor of Vespasian. When this prince refused a crown of victory for capturing Jerusalem, Apollonius wrote him this laconic epistle: "Apollonius to Titus, emperor of the Romans, sendeth greeting. Since you refuse to be applauded for bloodshed and victory in war, I send you the crown of moderation. You know to what kind of merit crowns are due."

When Domitian became emperor, Apollonius declared against him, and took the part of his rival, Nerva. For this he was arrested and carried to Rome. There, he was arraigned before the emperor; and, instead of being intimidated by his presence, he launched out into praises of Nerva. Domitian ordered him to be thrown into prison, and loaded with chains; and some days afterward he was carried into court and put upon a formal trial. In the midst of the pleadings, as the story is related, he

suddenly vanished from sight, and transported himself to Puteoli, one hundred and fifty miles distant.

From Italy he made his escape into Greece, and thence into Asia Minor, where, after many rambles, he settled at Ephesus. Here he established a school or college for teaching the Pythagorean philosophy, and collected many disciples and students. In this place, one of the most marvellous events of his life took place, as it is related by the historian Dion Cassius. Apollonius was in the midst of a public lecture, when suddenly he stopped short, and, changing his tone, exclaimed, "Well done, Stephen! take courage, kill the tyrant! kill him!" Then, after a short pause, he exclaimed, "The tyrant is dead!" At that very moment Domitian was assassinated in Rome by a person named Stephen. Some writers explain this extraordinary occurrence by supposing Apollonius to have been previously acquainted with the plot which led to the tyrant's death.

After this we hear nothing of Apollonius, except that Nerva wrote to him on his accession to the empire, soliciting the aid of his counsels, and that he returned the following answer: "O emperor, we shall live together during a very long period, in which we shall have no authority over others, nor shall others have any authority over us." This is considered as intimating his expectation that they would soon live together in another world. Concerning the time, place, or manner of the death of Apollonius, we have no certain information, unless we are disposed to credit a miraculous account, to the following purport:—

He was condemned to death by the Cretans; and after being loaded with chains, was shut up in the temple of Dictynna, to be devoured by dogs. When the temple was reopened, Apollonius was not to be found; the chains were discovered shattered to pieces, and voices of invisible virgins were heard proclaiming his elevation to the skies. So much for the Cretan story; but all accounts agree that he lived to the age of ninety-seven.

Such is the outline of the history of this extraordinary man, as transmitted to us by the writers of antiquity. It is not easy to conjecture what part of these marvels are pure impostures, and what part are exaggerations of real events. Apollonius was certainly a man of uncommon talent, and was doubtless one of those pretenders to miraculous power, who were not uncommon in his age. His great celebrity appears

from numerous attestations to be found in ancient history. In his lifetime he was called a god, and accepted that appellation, saying that every good man ought to be honored with it. After his death, he long continued to be ranked among the divinities. The inhabitants of Tyana dedicated a temple to his name. The Ephesians erected a statue to him, in commemoration of his delivering them from the plague. The Emperor Aurelian refrained from sacking Tyana, out of reverence to his memory. Divine honors were paid to him by many of the emperors, and magical virtue was attributed to his name.

It is very certain that Apollonius imposed not only upon the vulgar and the ignorant, but upon those who called themselves enlightened. The most probable supposition is, that, like his master Pythagoras, he varied his arts of delusion according to the character of those with whom he dealt. With wise men he acted the part of a philosopher; and among the vulgar he passed himself off for a magician. Of his motives of action, we can only form a conjecture; but he seems to have been infected with the very common failing of a desire to excite the astonishment of mankind by any means that lay in his power. His efforts appear to have been crowned with great success; but how he was able to practise his deceptions through a long life, undetected, it is impossible for us to conjecture.

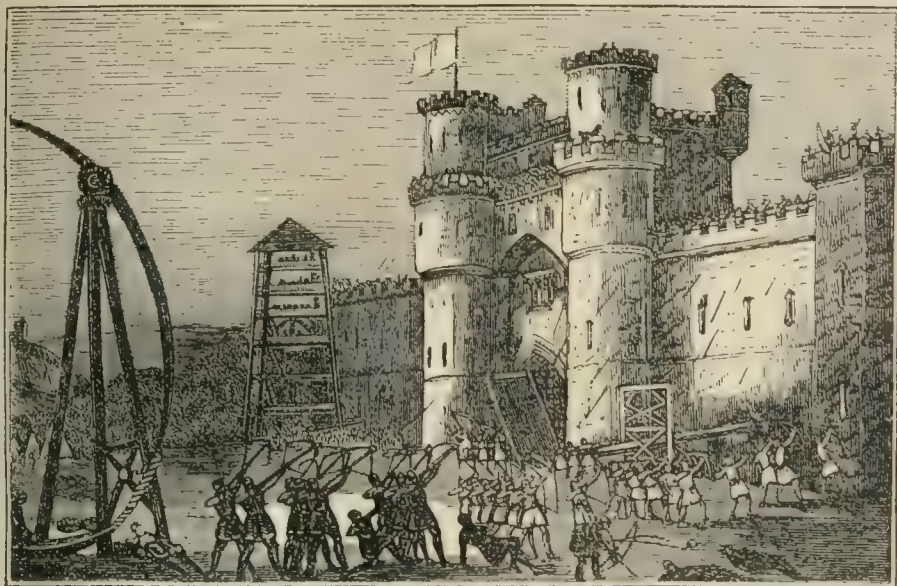


GALL INSECTS.

THESE are bred in an excrescence of a species of oak which grows in Africa, and are formed by a kind of fly, which bores into the bark of the tree, for a place in

which to deposit its eggs. The sap of the tree hardens round the egg, grows with the growth of the tree, and becomes what we call the gall-nut, and which is used for dyeing. The worm that is hatched within

this spacious vault lives upon the substance of the ball, till after its change into a chrysalis and then a fly, when it eats its way through into the air, and gains its freedom.



Manner of attacking a castle in the middle ages.

ANCIENT CASTLES.

In ancient times, when war was common, Kings and chiefs or Barons used to live in strong places, called castles. These consisted of high stone walls, built so as to enclose a square piece of ground in the centre, called the court. They were, in fact, quadrangular buildings, with a great many rooms in them. They were contrived so that the king or chief to whom they belonged might shut himself in, with all his soldiers, and thus defend himself from armies without.

The castle had always a well for water; stables for horses, and room for their food; it had places for soldiers; dungeons for prisoners; and apartments for many hundreds of people. In time of war, all the people round about would flock to the castle, and there they would live, sometimes for months.

Castles were usually built upon lofty pieces of ground, the access to which was very difficult. These were generally surrounded by deep ditches, filled with water, across which an enemy could not easily pass. Over this was a bridge for the use of the people of the castle, which was taken

away whenever any fear of an enemy was entertained.

Castles had towers, generally at the four corners, and sometimes each side of the gate. These were of a circular form, and had loopholes, like narrow windows, out of which the soldiers within shot their arrows.

Sometimes a castle would be besieged for months, by armies encompassing it. The army without would try every means to get into the castle, or kill the people. They would shoot their arrows with cross-bows, and endeavor to knock down the walls with battering-rams.

In travelling over Europe, the ruins of many castles are still to be seen. Few are met with which are in good repair, as over all Europe the people are now governed by laws which afford protection, without resorting to castles. These are, therefore, but little used at the present day; and even in cases where they are still occupied, it is generally as dwellings, and not as strong-holds for safety against enemies.

the legitimate and useful fruits of cultivation. It sometimes sweeps and rends like the tempest, but it purifies the air, and gives the shrub and tree and flower its refreshing rain. It brings good from what might seem to be evil, and, as it leaves each successive generation better, wiser, and happier, it may reconcile us to that otherwise disheartening fluctuation, which is written on the face of all human things.

The history of the press is in the highest degree interesting; at the same time, it is familiar to most readers. It is not necessary to our purpose to do more than give it a very general notice.

Of the several European claimants to the invention of printing, Guttenburgh, of Mentz, in Germany, seems entitled to the preference; and it would appear that he had succeeded in his experiment about the year 1441. In 1455, he produced his forty-two lined Bible, as it is called, because each column consisted of just forty-two lines. Faustus, one of his partners, after separating from him, devoted himself to the printing of Latin and German Bibles. It was matter of astonishment that he could produce them with such celerity, for, before, books were only written with the pen. In those days a copy of the Bible was worth a good house and farm, and the monks, who derived considerable sums from writing them, seeking to turn the current against Faustus, attributed his invention to the assistance of the Devil. When Faustus paid a visit to Paris to dispose of his books, the charge of sorcery was raised against him, and to save his life, he suddenly disappeared from the city. This gave rise to the popular legend, that he was carried off by his sable Majesty. The partnership firm of "The Devil and Dr. Faustus" is familiar, even in our day.

The invention of printing was kept secret for a time, but about the year 1462, several of the workmen who had been employed by the originators of the art, at Mentz, established presses in different parts of Germany, and also in Italy and France. From this period, it rapidly extended itself over Europe, and has ever since been making progress as well in the facility and cheapness with which printing is performed, as in the beauty and perfection of its execution. Within the last thirty years, immense strides have been made in these respects. The casting of types has been greatly accelerated; machine presses have been invented, and steam, the

great worker of the present day, has been applied to them with complete success.

A few simple details will show an almost miraculous change which has thus been produced in the art of making books. An expert mechanic will now cast five thousand letters in a day. A good compositor will set up seven thousand, that is, about six common octavo pages, in the same space of time. When these pages are once composed, an almost endless number of impressions may be struck off. By the common hand-press, which was wholly in use twenty years ago, two hundred and fifty impressions may be taken in an hour; but by the steam-press, four thousand impressions may be thrown off in that space of time. Such is the amazing celerity of the process of printing, that in two hours after a British steam-packet arrives, the substance of the news she brings, occupying a newspaper page of close matter, and detailing the doings of an entire hemisphere for several weeks, is spread before the public, and the sheets are sold at a cent apiece!

In six days after a copy of a book is received, — the product, it may be, of the first minds in Christendom, — it is published here, and sold for twelve and a half cents! Of this, a mechanic may buy ten copies for one day's work. Such are the wonderful results of the invention of the art of printing. Let us look at this matter attentively. Before this invention, that is, four hundred years ago, all books were written with a pen. A copy of the Bible required four years of severe labor for its production. And, after all, how inferior in beauty and ease of perusal is the written to the printed copy!

Such, then, are the amazing consequences, — that before the art of printing, a book which now costs fifty cents, and which involves an expenditure of but one hour's time for its production, required four years! Thus, by the aid of mechanical invention, man's physical power is increased more than five thousand fold. A man to-day may produce five thousand times as great results by the labor of his hands as he could have done four hundred years ago; and let us reflect that this advantage is applied to the noblest of all purposes, — to the diffusion of knowledge, the dissemination of intellectual and moral light. It is applied to the teaching of human rights and social obligations.



THE AFGHANS.

THESE are a fierce race of men, inhabiting a mountainous country on the eastern borders of Persia. It is supposed that they are descended from the Arabs, as they have no resemblance to the Tartars or Mongrels in person, language, or manners.

Afghanistan anciently bore the name of *Paropancitis*, and was invaded by Alexander, in his expedition to India. This country belonged successively to several conquerors. The people, however, in the fastnesses of their mountains, presenting little to excite the ambition or avarice of neighboring princes, remained for ages in a sort of independence, preserving their original customs and character.

About the year 1712, they threw off the yoke of Persia, to which they had been nominally subject, and soon established their independence. In 1717, Ispahan, the capital of Persia, surrendered to the Afghans, who were subsequently expelled from the country by the celebrated leader, Shah. In 1838, Afghanistan was conquered by the British, but since that period, the people have rebelled, and wreaked terrible vengeance upon the armies of their oppressors and invaders. The capital of this country is Cabul, which had a population of 60,000, before it was ravaged by the British in 1842.

The Afghans present many interesting traits of character. They have harsh feat-

ures, sunburnt countenances, and long beards. They wear loose garments, and often appear in shaggy mantles of skin. They have a martial spirit, and are bold, sober, simple, hospitable, and independent. They are divided into dwellers in tents and dwellers in houses. The latter carry on trade, and constitute one half the people. The habitations of the mass are rude, being built of unburnt brick, with roofs of wood. The palaces of the rich are in the Persian style. Those who live in tents are a wandering race, bearing a resemblance to the nomadic Arabs.

The Afghans are fond of all sorts of boisterous amusements; particularly those which involve great display of bodily activity. Hunting is the rage through Afghanistan, and the people pursue it, not only in all the known and usual modes, but in others peculiar to the country itself. Sometimes a whole neighborhood assembles, forms a circle, and sweeps together within it all the game belonging to a certain district. In the villages, much delight is taken in the *attum*, a hearty and noisy dance, consisting of violent movements, in which both sexes join. They delight in the fighting of quails, cocks, and other animals; and they amuse themselves at marbles, hopping on one foot, and other games, considered in Europe as suited only to children.



KOSCIUSKO.

THIS celebrated man was born in Poland, in 1756, and was educated at the military school at Warsaw. He was sent to France, where he pursued his studies, and on his return was made captain. He became attached to a young lady, but she married a prince, and leaving Poland, Kosciusko sought to forget his unhappy passion in solitary studies. Hearing of the struggle of the American colonies for liberty, he came hither, and gained the confidence of Washington, who made him his aid. He distinguished himself, particularly at the siege of Ninety-six, and was very highly esteemed by the army and commander-in-chief. He and La Fayette were the only foreigners admitted into the celebrated society of Cincinnati.

In our service Kosciusko received the rank of general, and in 1786 he returned to Poland. In the troubles which arose in that country at various periods, he performed extraordinary services, and was at

last proclaimed Dictator, having the absolute command of the armies, and the regulation of all affairs political and civil. In a contest with the Russians, he performed the most extraordinary services. He was, however, at length defeated, and fell, covered with wounds, amid a band of Cossacks. He was plainly dressed, but these savage people soon learned who he was, and his name commanded respect even among them. They instantly formed a litter with their lances, and conveyed him to the Russian general.

The news of his captivity spread like lightning to Warsaw. Every one received it as the announcement of the country's fall. Such was the idolatry of the people, that many invalids were seized with fevers. Some fell into fits of madness which never left them, and men and women were seen in the streets, wringing their hands, beating their heads against the walls, and exclaiming in despair, "Kosciusko is no more! the country is lost!" In fact, the Poles seemed

paralyzed by the blow. Warsaw capitulated a short time after, and the soldiers and generals of the revolution were either killed or dispersed, immured in the prisons of Petersburg, or sent to Siberia.

Kosciusko was liberated from prison in 1796, and visited the United States, where

he was joyfully received. He returned to Europe in 1798, and spent the remainder of his days in France and Switzerland. He died at Soleure, in 1817, leaving behind him a name endeared to all lovers of liberty, and all who admire greatness of talents associated with gentleness and kindness of heart.



THE MAPLE-TREE TEMPLE AT MATIBO.

THE beautiful tree which our engraving represents is one of the most curious ornaments of a charming estate called Matibo, situated in the neighborhood of Savigliano, in Piedmont, Italy. It was planted more than sixty years ago, but it is not more than twenty-five or thirty years since the idea was started of making it grow in the form

of a temple, which, after much time and perseverance, was completely realized.

This elegant little edifice consists of two stories, each of which has eight windows, and is capable of containing twenty persons. The floors are formed of branches twined together with great skill, and by nature are covered with leafy carpets; all round, the

verdure has formed thick walls, where a great number of birds have taken up their sojourn.

The proprietor of the island of Matibo has never disturbed those joyous little songsters, but has rather encouraged them; and

at all hours of the day they may be heard fearlessly sporting and warbling, by the delighted visitors, who, looking from the windows, admire the prospect that opens before them.



THE ELEPHANT.

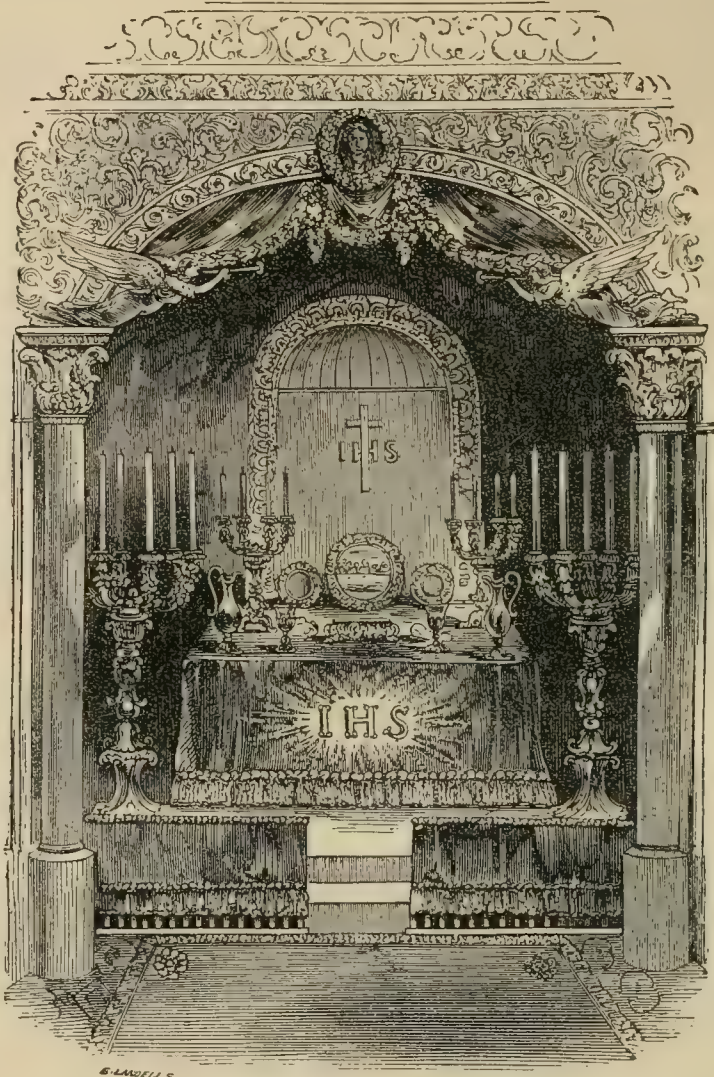
THE elephant, on first view, appears to be a large mass of unwieldy flesh, and on further examination, scarcely gives us any idea but of an animal of extreme stupidity, with small eyes, large pendulous ears, and an enormous trunk. He is generally about ten feet high, but does sometimes attain the astonishing height of twelve or fourteen feet. It is covered with a hide, without hair, which is hard and callous; it has heavy and misshapen legs, with round feet, and a tail with a tuft of hair at the end.

There are two species of the elephant, the Asiatic and African; they are much alike, though there is some difference in the teeth. In Africa, the people never train the elephant to any useful purposes, but in Asia this is quite common. In India, the animal is taught to carry burdens, and it performs a great deal of labor. We know that two thousand years ago elephants were used for war; this does not appear common now. They, however, carry large loads, and often, in hunting tigers, they are very expert.

Though extensively used, the elephant is not so domesticated as to breed in its state of confinement. All those that are employed

by men are taken when wild, and trained to their state of servitude. An elephant will carry three thousand pounds on his back, which is about six times as much as a horse will carry. In its natural state it is a mild and peaceable animal, and will always run away from a man. It seems to have no disposition to quarrel even with the brute creation; and as lions, tigers, and rhinoceroses, usually let the elephant alone, he lets them alone.

Though the elephant looks like a stupid creature, it is in fact very intelligent, and appears to have some faculties and sentiments almost human. It delights in music, and easily learns to beat time; it is fond of sweet odors, and often picks flowers, unites them into a nosegay, and seems delighted with the perfume; it has a delicacy of touch in its trunk, like that of the fingers, by which it can pick up a pin, tie and untie knots, lock and unlock doors, and even write with a pen. It learns to love its keeper, whom it caresses and obeys; it seems gratified with kindness, and distressed by abuse; it has even been known to die of grief, when, in a fit of madness, it has killed its conductor.



Altar for the Christening, at Windsor Castle.

ENGLISH LOYALTY AND ROYALTY.

It would seem that nothing could exceed the alluring and seductive aspect which life assumes with the English nobility. But there is still one step higher in the gradations of rank. Royalty is above mere nobility. Educated in a species of every-day protestantism against kings, queens, and princes, we Americans can hardly comprehend the depth and energy of English loyalty. It is unquestionably the strongest sentiment in an Englishman's bosom. He will hear profanity toward God with more equanimity than contempt of the king or queen. This will enable us to understand

the lively and loving interest with which the whole nation read accounts of the most trifling incidents in relation to the royal family.

To us it is amazing as well as amusing to look over the English papers, and remark the regular bulletins which are issued, setting forth the proceedings of the queen, her babies, and her royal consort. It is said that three hundred thousand dollars have been expended in pictures of the queen alone; and it may be easily believed, for not only are there pictures of her without number, but almost every event of her life is represented by wood cuts in the illustrated

newspapers. Nor is this all — we have pictures of Prince Albert and the little Prince of Wales; of the queen's ponies, poodles, and pigeons; of her hens and chickens; her coaches and costumes — everything indeed that belongs to her, of which a visible representation can be made.

The greediness with which these things are read, leads the editors of the papers to seize upon every incident fit for pictorial representation, and the ready artist furnishes a lively and effective sketch, of course "*taken on the spot*." The following fact will show the quackery resorted to to gratify the public appetite for *Victoriana*. The "Illustrated News" recently published a "correct view," as they said, of a *shearing* in Scotland, at which the queen was stated to have been present. There were the sheep, in the act of being denuded of their natural overcoats, and the queen, looking sympathizingly at the undressed mutton — as well she might, the season being the latter end of September. It appeared afterwards, however, that the *shearing* at which her majesty was present was a reaping — shearing being the Scotch for that operation. The conductor of the "News" saw from the Scotch papers that the queen had been at a shearing, and concluding that the word related to sheep, perpetrated this gross blunder. The engraving was said to be "from a drawing made on the spot!"

In our brief space, we cannot furnish a better idea of the pomp and circumstance surrounding the throne of England, than by giving the following account from a recent English paper.

"Lofty was the ceremonial, splendid the feast, in Windsor Castle last night; when Queen Victoria's second son was christened. Royal visitors began to arrive early in the afternoon, — the Duchess of Kent, the Queen Dowager, with Prince Edward of Saxe Weimar, the Duke and Duchess of Cambridge with the Hereditary Grand Duke and Grand Duchess of Mecklenberg Strelitz, the Duchess of Gloucester, Prince William of Prussia; all suitably attended. Many more distinguished visitors also came — foreign ministers, cabinet ministers, and others, and were admitted to seats in the chapel. The sacred place was gorgeously fitted up for the occasion; the altar covered with crimson velvet and gold, and illumined by wax lights in golden candlesticks. The Archbishop of Canterbury presided at the altar, aided by the Bishop of Norwich and the Bishop of Oxford, with the Queen's and Prince Albert's chaplains. After six

o'clock all was ready, and the royal procession entered the chapel. This was distinguished from previous pageants by the presence of the elder children. First came some officers of the household. Then the sponsors — namely, the Duke of Cambridge, proxy for Prince George; the Duchess of Kent, proxy for the Duchess of Saxe Coburg Gotha; the Duke of Wellington, proxy for the Prince of Leiningen; followed by the ladies and gentlemen of their suites. More officers of the household. The Queen, leading the Princess Royal, walked with Prince William of Prussia by her side: Prince Albert was beside the Queen Dowager, and led the Prince of Wales. Then came the rest of the royal visitors; and lastly, more officers. The Queen wore a white satin dress trimmed with Honiton lace, a diamond tiara on her head, with the insignia of the Garter: the little children were dressed in white satin and lace; the princes in military uniforms. The service began with Palestrina's 'O be joyful.' When the music ceased, Prince Albert's Groom of the Stole conducted into the chapel the Dowager Lady Lyttleton, bearing the royal infant; who was baptized by the Archbishop; the Duke of Cambridge giving the name — 'Alfred-Ernest-Albert.' His Royal Highness Prince Alfred was carried out of the chapel to the sound of Handel's Hallelujah Chorus from *Judas Maccabæus*. A benediction closed the service, at seven o'clock; and the procession withdrew in the order of its entrance.

"Within half an hour afterwards, a bevy of guests entered St. George's Hall for the banquet. Numberless wax-lights made it brighter than day: the tables and sideboards, covered with the riches of the household treasury, 'shone all with gold and stones that flame-like blazed.' The Queen sat at one end of the table, Prince William on her right, the duke her uncle on her left; Prince Albert sat at the other end, between Queen Adelaide and the Duchess of Kent. More royal guests, the clergy, cabinet and foreign ministers, ladies and gentlemen of the household and of the several suites, surrounded the board. The Steward of the Household gave the toasts, beginning with 'His Royal Highness Prince Alfred;' music playing at the meal and between the toasts.

"After dinner, the Queen led the way to the Waterloo Chamber; where a concert was performed of instrumental music by Beethoven, Haydn, Meyerbeer, Spohr, Mendelssohn, Bartholdy, and Weber. Spohr's piece was a manuscript symphony, describing the moral career of man — the bright

innocence of childhood, the age of passion, and the reign of mature virtue : it was composed for two orchestras, and was performed accordingly, by eleven solo-players in the east gallery, and a numerous orchestra in the west gallery, more than a hundred feet distant ; seventy performers in all. Thus the rejoicings terminated."

The preceding sketches will enable the reader to form some idea of the gorgeous and imposing attributes with which royalty is clothed in England. Though the good sense of the people forbid the Asiatic belief that the sovereign is a divinity, there is still an habitual idolatry toward the king and queen, which is scarcely less profound. The present sovereign is seen to revolve in an orbit of peculiar splendor, and her sex, youth, and fair fame, have added a lively personal interest to the usual attractions of the occupant of the throne.

It would be painful to turn from this glittering spectacle, to what are termed the *lower classes* of England. While the brilliant train of those who are called noble are rushing by in wealth and splendor, there are millions of suffering beings crushed beneath the relentless wheels of pomp and power. It is not within the scope of these pages to exhibit the condition of the people of England, and if it were, the subject is too familiar to require enlargement here. We need only say that the pictures of poverty, degradation and misery, throughout the three kingdoms, which are brought to us in the English papers, by every steamer, are indeed frightful—and it would seem that even the musical voice of adulation which fills the ear of majesty, must be drowned by the groans of suffering millions throughout the realm.



JERUSALEM.

JERUSALEM is the metropolis of the province of Judea, and one of the most remarkable cities in the world. Manetho, an Egyptian historian, says it was founded by the shepherds, who once invaded Egypt in great numbers ; but who these shepherds were, is still a mystery. The first we know of it, however, with any good degree of certainty, is in the time of Melchizedek, who lived in the days of Abraham. It was then called Salem. Josephus says it was the capital of Melchizedek's kingdom.

After this, it became the metropolis of the people called Jebusites. Its name at that time was Jebus. When the Israelites, under Joshua, attempted to take the city, they found the Jebusites too strong for them, and could only take that part of it

which was divided between the tribes of Judah and Benjamin. David, however, completely conquered it, and made it the capital of his own kingdom. This is one reason why Jerusalem is sometimes called the "City of David." Under David and his son Solomon, Jerusalem rose to a very high degree of splendor.

It is in thirty-one degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and thirty-five deg. twenty minutes east longitude ; being about twenty-five miles west of the river Jordan, forty-two east of the Mediterranean Sea, one hundred and two south of Damascus, and one hundred and fifty north of the eastern branch of the Red Sea. It was built on four hills : Zion, Acra, Moriah, and Bezetha ; but Moriah, on the east, and

Zion, on the south-west, are the principal. It was surrounded by a strong wall, forty or fifty feet high. The general form of the city is at present nearly a heptagon, or figure with seven sides.

The glory of the city of Jerusalem was its temple. The pattern for building the temple was given by David to his son Solomon; David himself not being permitted by God to erect it. He, however, made great preparations for it. He and his princes made vast contributions for the purpose; amounting, it is said, to more than one thousand millions of pounds sterling. Solomon, who was the man selected by divine appointment, employed one hundred eighty-four thousand men—a number equal to all the grown men who are able to labor in the whole State of Massachusetts—about seven years in completing this mighty work. When completed, the temple occupied, within its walls, about thirty-one acres of ground; and was, unquestionably, one of the most costly edifices of its size that the world ever saw. To it every male Jew was required to go twice a year, to perform worship.

But the glory of this costly edifice lasted only thirty-four years; for, during the reign of Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon, Shishak, king of Egypt, seized and pillaged it, and carried away its treasures. Indeed, the city of Jerusalem was several times taken, during those early periods, and sometimes it was burnt; but it was as often rebuilt.

About six hundred and two years before Christ, Nebuchadnezzar, king of Egypt, invaded Palestine, and threatened the destruction of the city and temple; but was prevented from effecting his object by the submission of Jehoiakim, the king. Efforts being made soon after, however, to throw off the yoke, Nebuchadnezzar again appeared with his army before the city, and, after a siege of fifteen or sixteen months, took it, and laid both the temple and the whole city in ashes. This was B. C. 590.

About B. C. 530, by permission of Cyrus, Jerusalem began to be rebuilt under Nehemiah, and repopled; but the walls were not completed till B. C. 456. The temple was also rebuilt by Zerubbabel; but this last temple was never so splendid as the former.

The city itself was again destroyed, many years afterwards, by Ptolemy. It met with a similar fate, still later, from Antiochus Epiphanes, who slew forty thousand of the people, and made slaves of as many more. It was rebuilt by Judas Maccabeus, and

in the time of our Saviour was somewhat flourishing. But about A. D. 70, after a dreadful siege of two years by the Romans, during which the inhabitants suffered so much from famine, as to eat, in some instances, the dead bodies of their friends, the city was taken, and, according to the prediction of our Saviour nearly forty years before, it was made a heap of ruins. The temple was completely destroyed, so that not one stone lay upon another; and the ground where it had stood was ploughed up. Even the name of the city was changed.

Adrian, another Roman emperor, undertook afterwards to rebuild the city, but his plan only partially succeeded. In the mean time he banished all the Jews, forbidding their return. Constantine the Great enlarged the city, and restored its ancient name.

Since that time the fate of Jerusalem has been various and singular. In 614, the Persians captured it, and in the capture ninety thousand Christians were slain. In 637, it was seized by the Saracens, who held it till 1079, when the Seljukian Turks got possession of it. After the Crusades, the Ottoman Turks became its masters; and these own it at the present day.

We have already represented Jerusalem as standing upon several eminences, and surrounded by a wall forty or fifty feet high. Towers rose at various places on these walls, some of them to the height of one hundred or one hundred twenty feet. The length of the wall, or circumference of the city, about the time of Christ, must have been, according to the best accounts, about four miles and a half. It was very thickly populated; containing, as some suppose, nearly three million inhabitants. This may be too high an estimate; but the population was certainly very large. One evidence of its great population is the fact, that there were in it, at this time, nearly five hundred Jewish synagogues. At present, Jerusalem contains five synagogues, eleven mosques, and twenty monasteries.

But Jerusalem is very far from being now what it once was. Instead of containing millions of inhabitants, as some suppose it formerly did, it scarcely contains twenty thousand. Of these, perhaps ten thousand are Mohammedans, six thousand are Jews, two thousand are Greeks, one thousand five hundred Catholics, and five hundred Armenians. Instead of being four and a half miles in circumference, the city scarcely measures two miles and two thirds. The following spirited account of Jerusalem, as it now is, is from the "Modern Traveller."

When seen from the valley of Jehoshaphat, Jerusalem presents an inclined plane, descending from west to east. An embattled wall, fortified with towers and a Gothic castle, compasses the city all round, excluding, however, a part of Mount Zion, which it formerly enclosed. In the western quarter, and in the centre of the city, the houses stand very close; but in the eastern part, towards the brook Kidron, you perceive vacant spaces.

The houses of Jerusalem are heavy, square masses, very low, without chimneys or windows. They have flat terraces or domes on the top, and look like prisons or sepulchres. The whole would appear to the eye one uninterrupted level, did not the steeples of the churches, the minarets of the mosques, and the summits of a few cypresses, break the uniformity of the plan. On beholding these stone buildings, in the midst of a stony country, you are ready to inquire if they are not the confused monuments of a cemetery in the midst of a desert.

Enter the city, and you will find nothing there to make amends for the dulness of its exterior. You lose yourself among narrow, unpaved streets, here going up hill, there down, from the inequality of the ground, and you walk among clouds of dust, or loose stones. Canvass stretched from house to house, increases the gloom. Bazaars, roofed over, and fraught with infection, completely exclude the light from the desolate city. A few paltry shops expose nothing but wretchedness to view; and even these are frequently shut, from apprehension of the passage of a cadi.

Not a creature is to be seen in the streets, not a creature at the gates, except now and then a peasant gliding through the gloom, concealing under his garments the fruits of his labor, lest he should be robbed of his hard earnings by the rapacious soldier.

Aside, in a corner, the Arab butcher is slaughtering some animal, suspended by the legs from a wall in ruins. From his haggard and ferocious look and his bloody hands, you would suppose that he had been cutting the throat of a fellow-creature, rather than killing a lamb.

The only noise heard from time to time in the city is the galloping of the steed of the desert; it is the Janissary, who brings the head of the Bedouin, or who returns from plundering the unhappy Fellah.

Here, among the ruins of Jerusalem, reside communities of Christian monks, whom nothing can compel to forsake the tomb of Christ — neither plunder, nor per-

sonal ill-treatment, nor menaces of death itself. Night and day they chant their hymns around the holy sepulchre.

Driven by the cudgel and the sabre, women, children, flocks and herds, seek refuge in the cloisters of these recluses. What prevents the armed oppressor from pursuing his prey, and overthrowing such feeble ramparts? It is the charity of the monks; they deprive themselves of the last resources of life, to ransom their supplicants.

Cast your eyes between the temple and Mount Zion. Behold another petty tribe (the Jews) cut off from the rest of the inhabitants of this city. These people bow their heads without murmuring; they endure every kind of insult, without demanding justice; they sink beneath repeated blows, without sighing; if their head be required, they present it to the cimeter. On the death of any member of this proscribed community, his companion goes at night, and inters him by stealth, in the shadow of Solomon's temple.

Enter the abodes of these people. You will find them, amidst the most abject wretchedness, instructing their children to read a book mysterious to them, which they, in their turn, will teach to their offspring. What they did five thousand years ago, this people still continue to do. Seventeen times have they witnessed the destruction of Jerusalem, yet nothing can discourage them, nothing can prevent them from turning their faces towards Zion.

To see the Jews scattered over the whole world, according to the word of God, must, doubtless, excite surprise; but to be struck with astonishment, you must view them at Jerusalem; you must behold these rightful masters of Judea living as slaves and strangers in their own country; you must behold them expecting, under all oppressions, a king who is to deliver them.

We will only mention, in conclusion of this article, that the most ancient as well as most splendid edifice in the whole modern city of Jerusalem, is the mosque of Omar. It stands on Mount Moriah, precisely — it is supposed — where once stood the temple of Solomon. It is one thousand four hundred eighty-nine feet — more than a quarter of a mile — long, and nine hundred ninety-five feet broad. It was built A. D. 636, and has therefore stood one thousand two hundred and thirteen years. It is indeed rather a collection of mosques, than a single one. The whole is included in two grand divisions; the Sakhara, in the centre, and the Akhsa, on the south side.



Cathedral Church of the Virgin Mary, or St. Basil, Moscow.

MOSCOW AND ST. PETERSBURG.

Moscow, whose terrible catastrophe in 1812 is known to every one, has risen from its ashes in greater splendor than ever; scarcely a trace of the great conflagration is now to be seen, and it would seem to have suffered on that occasion only to make way for improvements. The Russians were always proud of Moscow, and its destruction being connected with the overthrow of a hated invader, made them still more proud of it; every one bearing the name of Russian, from the emperor to the lowest peasant, felt honored in contributing to the patriotic work of its restoration. The view of this city at a distance has excited the admiration of all travellers. The countless number of towers, some with cupolas, either gilt or painted green, and others rising in the form of minarets, and the many gardens and trees intermixed with the houses, give the city a perfectly Oriental appearance. The towers are said to amount to six hundred, nearly every church having several besides the steeple. The cupolas or domes are in the form of a bulb or onion, surmounted by a crescent, with the cross above it. The towers vary considerably in form and color, and give the city its characteristic appearance; they are all built of stone, and most of them are situated in open squares, in consequence of which they escaped the fire of 1812. Hence Moscow has lost little or nothing of its original aspect. In the palaces and public buildings,

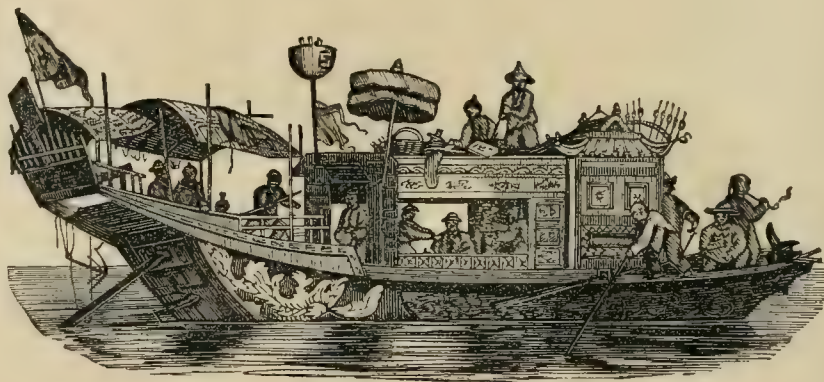
almost every style of architecture has been copied. The Kremlin is the most famous building in the city—it is a fortified palace of vast extent, adorned with numerous towers and minarets, and is a most singular and magnificent pile of architecture.

St. Petersburg strikes every visitor with astonishment by the splendor of its architecture. Its long lines of houses and palaces are generally of a uniform plan, and have a freshness of appearance that indicates the recent origin of the city. "The united magnificence of all the cities of Europe," says Dr. Clarke, since whose time it has been very much improved, "could but equal St. Petersburg." There is nothing mean or little to offend the eye; all is grand, extensive, large, and open; the streets seem to consist entirely of palaces; the structures are lofty and elegant. The public buildings, quays, piers, ramparts, &c., are composed of masses of solid granite; and our admiration is increased, when we reflect that not two centuries have elapsed since the foundation of the city. Palaces, cathedrals, triumphal arches and monumental statues, all of most tasteful design and costly workmanship, stand in thick and fair array on a spot which was recently covered with marshes and forests. The plasterer's trowel and the painter's brush are kept in constant activity throughout the city, so that there is no appearance of decay in any quarter. Repairs are not left

to the caprice or indolence of the owners of houses; the government immediately steps in and orders them to be made. It can create also as well as preserve, for much of St. Petersburg has been built by compulsion; it would never have attained to half its present magnitude but for the interference of the authorities, who were accustomed to say to a man in very plain terms, "You, who have this income or that, or this or that number of houses, are hereby called upon to build forthwith so many more."

In spite, however, of the magnificence of this city, there are deficiencies which deprive it of the character of a great capital, and cause it to rank no higher than an enormous country-village. Of mere bulk, wealth, and population, it has enough; but this splendid city, "built to order" by the commands of a despot, wants the indescribable something which makes the capitals

of France and England the capitals also of the intellect and fashion of Europe. The Russian metropolis has filled the nations with wonder by its sudden rise, and it may fill them with greater wonder by its yet more sudden fall. The proud monarch of the north may have it said of that stately city as was said of Jonah's gourd, that it came up in a night and perished in a night. Such a calamity, if we may believe those who have long resided there, is by no means improbable. The ground is so low, that the Neva at times sweeps irresistibly over the city; and the inundations have often risen so high as to threaten the complete submersion of the finest quarters. Should a rise of the river happen simultaneously with a strong wind blowing up the Gulf of Finland, nothing can save the city from total destruction.



CHINESE EMPEROR'S BARGE.

THE Chinese, though neither savage nor barbarous, are still, in most respects, very unlike other civilized nations. In houses, dress, furniture, equipage, worship, — indeed, in most of the actions, feelings, and opinions of life, they are a peculiar people. They have, in fact, struck out a civilization of their own. Their religion, their literature, their arts, are all Chinese, and nothing but Chinese. It is curious to observe that although, for many centuries, they have been a cultivated people, and even preceded the Europeans in many useful and ingenious discoveries, they seem to stand still at a certain point, beyond which they are not capable of improvement. There they remain, century after century; and, while other nations have surpassed them, they

still conceive that they are the most learned, civilized, and polished people in the world. All other nations they conceive to be barbarians, and hold them in supercilious contempt.

The Chinese vessels may serve as a sample of their national character. We give above a picture of the emperor's barge, which shows some taste, some ingenuity, and no little industry; yet how clumsy, how ineffective, is it in comparison with a Yankee steamboat! The Chinese emperor can go, by dint of rowing, three miles an hour, while we go fifteen. This is about the difference between the energy of the Chinese and the civilized people of Europe and America.



Queen Elizabeth in procession.

ELIZABETH, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

THIS extraordinary woman, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, was born in 1533. Being educated a Protestant, and having adopted the principles of the Reformation, she was looked upon with suspicion and treated with harshness during the reign of her sister Mary. She devoted herself, however, to study, and is thus described at this period: "She was of admirable beauty, and well deserving a crown; of a modest gravity, excellent wit, royal soul, happy memory, and indefatigably given to the study of learning, insomuch as, before she was seventeen years of age, she understood well the Latin, French, and Italian tongues, and had an indifferent knowledge of the Greek. Neither did she neglect music, so far as it became a princess, being able to sing sweetly, and play handsomely on the lute."

On the death of Mary, in 1558, she was immediately proclaimed queen, and was received in the metropolis with the loudest acclamations. She consigned to oblivion all the affronts she had received during the

late reign, and prudently assumed the gracious demeanor of the common sovereign of all her subjects. Philip of Spain soon made her proposals of marriage; but she knew the aversion borne him by the nation too well to think of accepting him.

She now proceeded to the arduous task of settling the religion of the state. In comparison with the harsh and cruel measures of her predecessor, her conduct was marked with moderation. Yet the Catholics were made to feel the severest restraints upon their liberty of thought and action. It was not long before she began that interference in the affairs of Scotland which produced the most singular and painful events in her reign. These will be detailed in the life of the unhappy Queen Mary, in another part of this volume.

The political history of Elizabeth would fill a volume. She soon acquired great reputation for vigor and sagacity, and was regarded as the head of the Protestant party in Europe. She took the part of the revolted

provinces of Holland against Spain in 1535, and three years after, when threatened by what was called the "Invincible Armada," she displayed a degree of energy and personal courage which would have done credit to a sovereign of the other sex. She mingled largely in the political affairs of the continent, and, in 1601, held a conference with the celebrated Sully, with a view to the adjustment of a new balance of European power. While thus directing her attention to general politics, she did not neglect the internal affairs of her kingdom. These were indeed conducted with great sagacity and wisdom; and such was the state of prosperity among the people, that the "good old days of Queen Bess" is still a proverb in England. Although thus attentive to the concerns of government, Elizabeth devoted much time and expense to dress, of which she was excessively fond; and she even affected a love of literature and learning. The age in which she lived is remarkable for the great men it produced — Shakespeare, Bacon, Sidney, Hooker, and Raleigh, whose works contributed so much to give vigor, strength, and elegance, to the English tongue. Literature owes, however, little to her; she was much more fond of displaying her own acquirements than encouraging the learned. Whatever countenance Shakespeare received from royalty, he owed to his friends Essex and Southampton; and Spenser, who has sung the praises of the queen in "strains divine," died in neglect and poverty.

Elizabeth was fond of multiplying pictures of herself, and so far encouraged painting. One of her most characteristic ordinances is a proclamation forbidding all manner of persons from drawing, painting, gravating, &c., her majesty's person and visage, till some perfect pattern should be prepared by a skilful limner, "for the consolation of her majesty's loving subjects, who were grieved, and took great offence, at the errors and deformities committed by sundry persons in this respect." She was so little capable of judging of works of art, that she would not allow a painter to put any shadows upon the face, "because," as she said, "shade is an accident, and not in nature."

During her whole reign, Elizabeth was subjected to the influence of favorites. The most celebrated of these are the Earls of Leicester and of Essex. The first was a most weak and worthless man, contemned and feared by the nobles, and odious to the people; yet, in spite of all his vices and incapacity, he maintained his influence for nearly thirty years. Her partiality for

Essex seems to have been the dotage of a vain old woman. She could not appreciate his fine qualities; she would not make allowance for his faults; and he was too frank and spirited to cringe at her footstool. "I owe her majesty," said he upon an occasion when she had repaid some want of obsequiousness by a blow, "the duty of an earl, but I will never serve her as a villain and a slave!" Essex was too rash and unsuspecting to be a match for the cool and wily ministers, whose interest it was to have him out of their way, not only as the favorite of the present sovereign, but as likely to be all powerful with her successor; and partly by their arts, and partly by his own fiery temper, he was brought to the block in the thirty-fourth year of his age. In the exasperation of offended power and jealous self-will, the queen signed the warrant for his execution, and pined away the remainder of her life in unavailing remorse. This grief, with which she long struggled in secret, at length broke forth superior to control. The occasion was as follows: —

The Countess of Nottingham, a near relation, but no friend, of Essex, being on her death-bed, entreated to see the queen, declaring that she had something to confess to her before she could die in peace. On her majesty's arrival, the countess produced a ring, which she said the Earl of Essex had sent to her, after his condemnation, with an earnest request that she would deliver it to the queen, as a token by which he implored her mercy; but that, in obedience to her husband, she withheld it. Elizabeth at once recognized the ring as one which she had herself presented to her favorite, with the tender promise, that of whatsoever crimes his enemies might have accused him, or whatever offences he might actually have committed against her, on his returning to her that pledge, she would either pardon him, or admit him, at least, to justify himself in her presence. It was in a moment of pique at his supposed pride and obstinacy in refusing to ask her forgiveness, that she had signed the death-warrant. She now learned that he had been the victim, and herself the dupe, of the most barbarous treachery. Transported with grief and rage, she shook the dying countess in her bed; and, vehemently exclaiming, "God may forgive, but I never will!" she flung herself out of the chamber.

Returning to the palace, she surrendered herself without resistance to the despair which had seized her heart on this fatal disclosure. She refused medicine, and al-

most the means of sustenance; days and nights she sat upon the floor, sleepless, her eyes fixed, and her finger pressed upon her mouth, the silence only broken by her sighs, groans, and ejaculations of anguish. Her sufferings were at length relieved by her death, on the 24th of March, 1603. Her last words were strongly characteristic. During her whole life, she had shown a perverse dread of naming her successor; but it was necessary that the question should be put to her in her last moments. She replied, "My seat has been the seat of kings, and I will have no rascal to succeed me." Cecil, whom the weakness of the dying lioness rendered bold, inquired what she meant by

the words, "that *no rascal* should succeed her;" to which she answered, "I will have a king to succeed me, and who should that be but the king of Scots?"

The personal character of Elizabeth presents little that excites our sympathy or respect. She was vain, jealous, and selfish, in the extreme. She was capable of the deepest hypocrisy, and often practised it. She sacrificed everything to her despotic love of sway, her pride, and her vanity, except the interests of her kingdom. These she guarded with care, and, though a tyrannical and selfish monarch, she must be ranked as among the most successful sovereigns that have swayed the British sceptre.



NEW ZEALAND.

NEW ZEALAND consists of two islands, lying in the Pacific Ocean, some two or three thousand miles west of Cape Horn, and several hundred miles east of New Holland. They are about 1000 miles in length, and contain 62,000 square miles. They possess lofty chains of mountains, whose tops are covered with perpetual snow. From these, numerous streams pour down into the valleys below. Nothing can exceed the grandeur of the mountain scene, or the beauty and fertility of the plains and vales which checker the islands. Mighty torrents, bold cliffs, and lofty forests, diversify the land-

scape. The natural products are rich and varied. Along the coast are many charming bays, enlivened by the canoes and skirted by the villages of the natives.

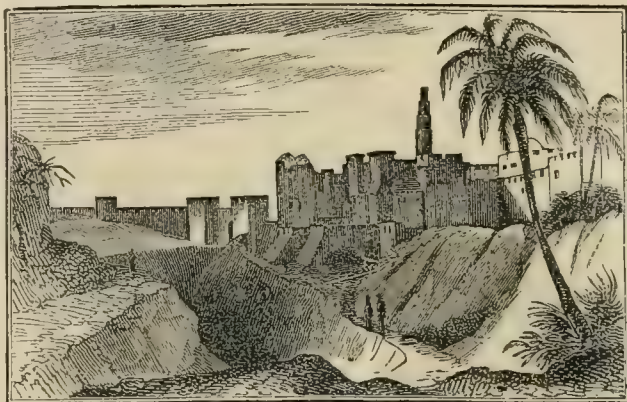
The New Zealanders are divided into numerous little bands, who make war upon each other in the most savage and ferocious manner. They have many odious customs, among which cannibalism is practised. Notwithstanding this, to the members of their own tribe, or those whom they regard as friends, they are not only mild and courteous, but display the fondest attachment and most tender sensibility. Families live to-

gether in great harmony, and are seen assembled together in pleasing and harmonious groups. On the death of their relations, they exhibit the most impassioned and affecting symptoms of grief, cutting their faces with pieces of shell or bone, till the blood flows and mixes with their tears.

They have a great turn for oratory, the chiefs making speeches of two or three hours, accompanied with lively gestures, to which those of the audience correspond. Their war canoes are very large, adorned with much curious and elaborate carving. Great diligence is also exercised, and great pain endured, in bestowing upon their skins the ornament of *tattooing*, and the visages of the chiefs are often entirely covered over with various regular figures. This, however, is

not effected without severe pain, causing even attacks of fever; but to shrink in any degree from the operation, is considered as altogether derogatory to a manly spirit. They have also a horrid art, by which the heads of their enemies, being dried in an oven, and exposed to a stream of fresh air, are maintained in a state of perfect preservation.

We have described the natives of New Zealand as they were some years ago, before the settlement of Europeans in the country. The English have now established stations there, and the missionaries have done a good deal toward softening and civilizing the people. They are, on the whole, an intelligent, vigorous, and noble race, and when redeemed by the influence of Christianity, they will be very interesting.



VALLEY OF JEHOSEPHAT.

JEHOSEPHAT is a narrow valley or glen, which runs from north to south, between the city of Jerusalem or Mount Moriah, on which it stands, on the one side, and Gethsemane and the Mount of Olives, on the other. The brook Kidron, or Cedron, runs through this valley; on which account it was sometimes called the valley of Kidron. It had also several other names, among which were "the Vale of Shevah," the "King's Dale," &c.

This glen received its more common name from the fact, that Jehoshaphat, one of the kings of Judah, erected a most magnificent tomb in it. It abounds with monuments, ancient and modern, and appears to have served as a burying-place to the inhabitants of Jerusalem for many ages. The Jews think so highly of being buried there, that it is said they resort thither to die, from all

parts of the world; and, for such a privilege, sometimes pay to the merciless Turks, who own the soil, almost its weight in gold.

There are three monuments pointed out here, which are of particular interest; those of Absalom, Zechariah, and Jehoshaphat. A traveller thus describes them.

"The first mentioned is a square mass of rock, hewn down into form, and separated from the quarry out of which it was cut, by a passage of twelve or fifteen feet on three of its sides; the fourth or western front being open towards the valley, and to Mount Moriah; the foot of which is only a few yards distant. This huge stone is eight paces in length on each side, and about twenty high in the front and ten feet high at the back; the hill on which it stands having a steep ascent. It has four semi-columns cut out of the same rock, on each of its faces,

with a pilaster at each angle, all of a mixed Ionic order, and ornamented in bad taste.

"In the immediate vicinity is the tomb of Jehoshaphat, a cavern, which is more commonly called the Grotto of the Disciples, from an idea that the disciples of our Saviour went frequently thither to be taught by their Master. The front of this excavation has two Doric pillars, of small size, but of just proportions. In the interior are three chambers, all of them rude and irregular in their form, in one of which were several grove-stones, removed, we may suppose, from the open ground, for greater security.

"Opposite to this is the reputed tomb of

Absalom, resembling nearly, in the size, form and description of its square base, that of Zechariah. This is surmounted by a sharp conical dome, having large mouldings running round its base, and on the summit something like an imitation of flame."

Here is also shown what is called the tomb of the Virgin Mary, and the pit where the Jews say the sacred fire was hid during the Babylonian captivity; together with many more objects which arrest the attention of the traveller; and which, though they give no certain information, serve greatly to interest him.



SAVAGES OF BRAZIL.

BRAZIL, when first visited by Europeans, was a great wilderness. Its vast plains were covered with thick forests, peopled by a multitude of scattered tribes, without agriculture, arts, or government, and exhibiting human society in some of its rudest forms.

More than half the territory of Brazil remains in a wild state, still tenanted by the savages. The Jesuits, at an early period, established missions in various parts of this country; and many of the tribes became, under their government, social, peaceable, and humane; the indefatigable perseverance of the missionaries having surmounted the greatest obstacles.

Among the wild tribes, the Boticudos are perhaps the fiercest and most untamable.

Where they are unable to contend openly against the Portuguese, they have recourse to stratagem. They sometimes conceal themselves among the branches of trees, and watch an opportunity of discharging their arrows at the unwary traveller. Sometimes they dig pits, fill them with sharp stakes, and cover them with leaves and twigs, as traps for their pursuers. Sometimes they mark out a house, and ascertain the number of inhabitants it contains; then, at a convenient opportunity, they set it on fire, and fall on the hapless inmates while they are attempting to escape.

These Indians bear an implacable hatred against the negroes, whom they eat without scruple, after killing them. But, daring and

ferocious as they are, they can always be put to flight by the discharge of a gun; for they are entirely unacquainted with the use of fire-arms.

The Guaycoros, another wild tribe, are renowned for their strength and courage, among the Brazilians. They are expert horsemen, and are armed with long bows, arrows, and lances. They have waged long wars with the Spaniards and Portuguese, and, though often defeated in battle, they have never been completely subdued. They manufacture a coarse sort of cotton cloth, which they exchange with the neighboring tribes for horses.

The Brazilian Indians, in general, are distinguished for their bravery and bodily strength. When they are taken prisoners, their spirit cannot be subdued, either by

stripes or kindness. Many of them, in despair of regaining their freedom, have refused all food, and starved themselves to death. When suffering excruciating torments at the stake, they brave their torturers, and boast that they may take away their lives, but that they can never deprive them of their courage.

These Indians paint their bodies with various colors, and decorate themselves with grotesque ornaments of shells, bones, and feathers. They eat lizards and monkeys, among other kinds of game. Their habitations are rude huts, which are sometimes so large as to contain fifteen or twenty families. On fixed days they hold public dances, which serve at once as an amusement and as a religious ceremony.



JOPPA, OR JAFFA.

THIS is one of the most ancient seaports in the world. It is situated on a fine plain, on the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, forty-five miles west of Jerusalem. It is believed to have existed before the deluge; to be the city where Noah built his ark; whence Jonah embarked from Tarshish, where he was thrown overboard and swallowed by a whale. It was the port used by Solomon to receive timber from Tyre for the building of the temple. It is now much reduced in importance, being only a small Turkish town on the shores of the Mediterranean, built on a little eminence projecting into the sea, and containing a population of from ten to fifteen thousand Turks, Arabs, Jews, and Christians. It has a fine climate, and a fine

country around it, and the orange gardens are the finest on the shores of the Mediterranean. Although it is the seaport of Jerusalem, its harbor has always been bad, and the vessels that anchor there are often wrecked in the storms.

The modern city has nothing in its history to interest the traveller. But he may stand on the shore, and imagine the little harbor filled with the Tarshish; or, imagine Noah entering the ark with his family, by whom the earth was to be repopled; or wander through the narrow streets to seek for the house of Tabitha, whom Peter raised from the dead, or that of Simon, the tanner, where Peter tarried many days.



Shakspeare reading his Plays to Queen Elizabeth.

SHAKSPEARE.

SHAKSPEARE, one of the greatest men that ever lived, was born, April 23, 1564, at a town in England called Stratford, which, being situated on the river Avon, is called *Stratford-upon-Avon*.

His father was a man of business, and was so far respected as to be made bailiff or chief magistrate of Stratford. He gave his son William a good English education at the town schools, but he was not sent to college.

William appears not to have been brought up to any particular trade or profession; and how he spent his time, from childhood to manhood, history does not tell us. At the age of eighteen he was married, and soon after went to London, where he had a friend by the name of Greene, who was a famous player in those days. Will was soon engaged in some low station in the theatre, and afterwards became an actor; but he did not excel in this line. He, however, wrote some plays, which were so very clever as to attract great attention. Before that time

only the rabble used to frequent the theatre; but now persons of the first rank and education went thither to see the performance of Shakspeare's plays. It is said that Queen Elizabeth, who was then queen of England, took delight in them, and even required Shakspeare to read them to her.

For several years he lived in London; but, as he became wealthy, he bought a good house in Stratford, where he lived, spending his time in gardening, writing plays, and social intercourse with his friends. He was very pleasant and witty in conversation, which made it a delight to be in his company. Thus many persons of talent and genius were drawn around him. In this manner he lived till April, 1616, when he died.

Shakspeare was not ambitious, and he seems to have had no conception of the fame that was to follow his name. He took no pains to publish his works; and, for nearly a century after his death, they were neglected. But at last their merit became known

to the world, and they are now generally regarded as among the most useful and instructive of human productions.

Shakspeare wrote many poems, but his plays are most esteemed. These fill a dozen volumes. I do not recommend them to very young persons, for they are not very easily understood; and, beside, there are some bad things in them. When my young readers are advanced in education, and can sift out and reject what is bad, then they may read Shakspeare's works with great pleasure and

profit. They will then see how the beautiful works of nature appear more beautiful as reflected in a great mind; they will then see deeper into human nature, and will better understand themselves and mankind; they will then see virtue arrayed in new charms, and vice in more hideous colors; they will learn to look on human life with more profound feelings of responsibility, and on religion, as revealed in the word of God, with a more awful and reverent sense of its wisdom, depth, and importance to man.



MONKEY ORATORS.

It has been often remarked that monkeys appear to have been made in ridicule of mankind. Their forms are, indeed, very much like those of men, and many of their movements and actions are like those of human beings. They have hands with fingers, and feet with toes. Their fore legs they use like arms, and some species can walk erect on their hind legs. Their faces are formed somewhat like those of men, and they have often a human expression in the countenance.

It is true that the monkey creation have not so much real intelligence as the dog, the elephant, and some other animals; but they are often very cunning. Their most remarkable characteristic, however, is their disposition to imitate whatever they see done.

This turn of mimicry has frequently proved fatal to them. In Africa, the negroes go beneath the trees, where the monkeys are climbing, and wash their faces in water. They then go away, leaving under the trees a vessel filled with a gummy liquid. When the monkeys see that the people are gone, they descend, and, imitating the negroes, wash their faces in the gum. Immediately their eyes are all stuck up, so that they are completely blind. The negroes, who, at a little distance, have watched their proceedings, now come forward, and have no difficulty in catching the foolish monkeys.

There is an amusing fable, founded upon an incident which is supposed really to have taken place. A monkey, who had often seen his master shave himself, once took

advantage of his absence, and undertook to perform the same operation. Having lathered himself thoroughly, he took out the razor, and gave it a flourish, but, unluckily, he drew it across his throat, and died on the spot. This fable teaches the folly of undertaking to do a thing merely because we see others do it, and without understanding its use or meaning. Persons who do this are often called monkeys.

Among the monkey tribe there is considerable variety. The apes have no tails, and some of them have a grave and solemn aspect. Some have no voice, or, at least, are generally silent. But there are other monkeys so noisy as to have acquired the title of *howlers*. These are particularly eloquent

at night, and sometimes make the woods resound for miles around. When a number of them are howling at once, they seem to resemble our House of Representatives at Washington, who sometimes forget propriety, and a number of them speak at once. Sometimes a single howler will take his position upon the branch of a tree, and will seem to be making a regular speech to the rest of the monkeys, who squat upon the ground below. These creatures can never have seen one of our noisy politicians addressing an assembly; we are therefore bound to suppose that stump oratory is the national practice of monkeys, and that they have not adopted it from mankind, as we might otherwise have imagined.



SEEING.

Of all the senses, that of seeing is the most noble, commanding and useful. It enables us to perceive thousands of objects at a glance, with their forms, colors, and distance.

The mechanical structure of the eye is very curious, but I shall not describe it now. It is sufficient to say that light is the great instrument by which vision is performed. This is supposed to consist of innumerable particles, inconceivably small, which proceed in straight lines from every part of luminous or shining bodies. These fly with a velocity ten millions times as swift as a cannon ball, for they come

from the sun to the earth in eight minutes! These rays of light enter the ball of the eye at the pupil; and at the bottom of a cavity in the ball, called the *retina*, a little picture is painted of every object placed before the eye. It is this little picture that enables us to see; and we see distinctly, or otherwise, as this is clear or obscure. A very curious thing is, that this picture represents everything reversed, that is, upside down. The reason why we do not, therefore, see things upside down, is a matter that has sadly puzzled the philosophers.



THE SENSE OF HEARING.

THE sense of hearing lies in the ear, the organs of which are contrived with admirable skill and ingenuity. The air is capable of being moved so as to produce a rapid shaking or vibration. Such a movement of the air is made by the explosion of a gun, by the human voice, &c. Thus vibration of the air, with the perception of it, is what we call sound.

Now, at the bottom of a winding cavity in the ear is a delicate organ, called the drum, which is affected by every motion of the air, however slight; and which, by means of nerves, conveys to the brain the perception of such motion. It is by this means that we hear distant as well as near sounds, and often know what is going on even beyond the reach of sight. Hearing, then, is only perceiving vibrations or quick motions of the air, and sound is only such vibration, with the perception of it.

The delicacy and perfection of the mechanism of the ear are so great, that by its power we not only are able to distinguish the vibrations of the air, caused by the voice of one person, from those produced by that of another, but even to distinguish the vibrations produced by one string of a musical instrument from those of another. It is owing to the perfection of this mechanism that

we are able to distinguish musical notes, to judge of the distance of sounds, to discriminate between the several songs of the orchard and the grove.

Most quadrupeds have long ears, which they can move forward and back with great ease, so as to distinguish with quickness and accuracy the species of sounds, and the nature and situation of the animals or objects which produce them. If you notice a cat or dog, or even a horse, you will observe that the ear is very active, seeking to gather information as to what is going on around. The ears of the hare and rabbit are peculiarly fitted to the use of such timid creatures.

We observe that children seem often inattentive to sounds, and that they are very fond of noise. The reason is this: the bones of their ears are soft, and therefore not sonorous; accordingly, their sense of hearing is dull. When they appear inattentive, they do not hear; yet the exercise of the sense is pleasant, and therefore loud noises delight them. For this reason it is that they usually speak loud, and, when several of them are together, they seem to be much gratified with making an uproar.

The sense of hearing is not only of the greatest use to us in the serious business of life, but it is the source of an infinite

number of pleasures. What gratification we sometimes enjoy at hearing the voice of a dear friend! What enjoyment we derive from music! Beside all this, language, which is the great vehicle of thought, is communicated by the ear. It is true that after they are formed we commit words to paper; but these are only signs of sounds previously formed. Without hearing we

could have no speech, and all would be dumb; without speech there could be no writing, no books. How vastly, then, is the circle of our knowledge and our pleasures enlarged by this sense, and how does the goodness and the wisdom of the Creator appear in bestowing upon his creatures such a wonderful and beneficent gift!



THE SENSE OF TASTE.

THE tongue, which has so much to do with talking, has a good deal to do with tasting. It is, indeed, one of the chief instruments by which the sensation of taste is experienced. The palate is also another organ of importance in the perception of taste.

The tongue is always moistened with saliva, which instantly dissolves the surface of anything that is put into the mouth. Some portion of the particles being taken upon the tongue, this latter is pressed against the roof of the mouth, thus bringing them in contact with the nerves which coat the surface of the mouth and palate. It is by means of these nerves that the qualities of substances are perceived, and the sensation which we call taste is excited.

It will be perceived that the saliva of the mouth is one great cause of all taste. When

the tongue is rendered dry by disease, or any other circumstance, the sense of taste is either imperfect or lost. The pressure of the tongue against the surface of the mouth seems also to be important in producing the sense of taste; for if you put anything into your mouth, and hold it open, the sensation is hardly produced. It is from the effect of this pressure that the act of chewing and swallowing gives us so much pleasure.

There is a great difference in people, as to the degree of perfection in which they possess this sense; for in some it is very blunt, while in others it is, very acute. There is a difference, also, as to the things that people like. Some are fond of cheese, and others cannot endure it. The Esquimaux are delighted with the flavor of blubber oil; the Indians of Guiana feast upon

monkeys; the negroes of south-western Africa are fond of baked dogs; the Chinese eat rats, lizards and puppies; the French rank snails and frogs among their nicest tit-bits; yet all these things are revolting to us.

This diversity arises chiefly from custom and habit; for originally our perceptions are, no doubt, nearly the same. It is certainly so with animals; for every horse and every ox, in a natural state, eats or rejects the same species of food.

The word taste is frequently used, in what

is called a *metaphorical* sense, for the purpose of expressing the feelings of the mind. A person who loves poetry is said to have a taste for poetry; by which is meant that he has a mind which feels and appreciates the qualities of poetry, just as the tongue feels or appreciates the qualities of food.

It is in the same sense that we say a person has a taste for painting, or music, or any other art. When we say a person has fine taste, we mean that his mental perceptions are very acute.



THE SENSE OF TOUCH.

THE sensations of smelling, tasting, hearing, and seeing, are conveyed by distinct organs, severally devoted to these objects, and all confined to the head. But the sense of *touch*, or *feeling*, extends over almost every part of the body. Though we may call every sensation *feeling*, yet what is properly denominated the sensation of *touch* consists of the feeling or sensation excited by bodies brought in contact with the skin, and especially the tips of the fingers.

It is by the sense of touch that men and other animals are able to perceive certain external qualities of objects. It is by this

sense that we acquire ideas of hardness, softness, roughness, smoothness, heat and cold, weight and pressure, form and distance.

The accuracy of this sense is much improved by habit. In some cases, when persons have become deaf or blind, the sense of touch has grown so acute as partially to supply the loss of the sense of seeing or hearing. Blind persons have sometimes been able to determine the qualities of objects, with wonderful accuracy, by touch, and even to distinguish the colors of cloths, by being able to discriminate between the substances used in giving these their hues.



SMELLING.

THE seat of this sense is the nose, and the chief instrument by which it operates is a soft membrane lining the interior of the nostrils. This is covered over with an infinite number of organs, too delicate to be seen by the naked eye, called the *olfactory nerves*. As the brain is the seat of the mind, these nerves extend to it, and convey to that organ every impression that is made upon them.

The nerves are like sentinels or messengers stationed in all parts of the body, whose duty it is to communicate to the seat of power—to the brain, and thus to the intellect—everything that happens to the body. Thus, if you pinch your finger, or stub your toe, or put your hand in the fire, or taste of an apple, the nerves carry the story to the mind; and thus it is that we feel and find out what is going on.

So it is with the olfactory nerves; they have the power of perceiving what effluvia is in the air, and they tell the mind of it. At first thought, it might not seem that smelling was a very important sense. The lady in the preceding picture appears to think that the nose is made only that she may enjoy the perfume of the rose; and there are others who take a very different view of the matter. I once knew a fellow who

insisted upon it that there were more bad smells than good ones in the world, and therefore he said that the sense of smelling was a nuisance, as it brought more pain than pleasure. I am inclined to think that this view was not singular, for I know several people who go about with their noses curled up, as if some bad odor was always distressing them. I make it a point, when I meet such discontented people, to cross over, and go along on t'other side of the way.

But, however others may feel, I maintain that the nose is, on the whole, a good thing—that smelling is a convenient sense, and that we could not get along very well without it. Let us consider the matter.

It must be remarked, in the first place, that in man, as well as animals, the sense of smelling is placed very near the sense of taste and the organs of eating. We may, therefore, infer that smelling is a guide to us in the choice of food; that what is of a good flavor, in general, is wholesome, and that what is of an offensive smell is unwholesome. The fact, doubtless, is, that we abuse the sense of smelling so much by the artificial tastes we cultivate, by eating spices and pickles, and a great variety of condiments, that it ceases to aid us as much as nature

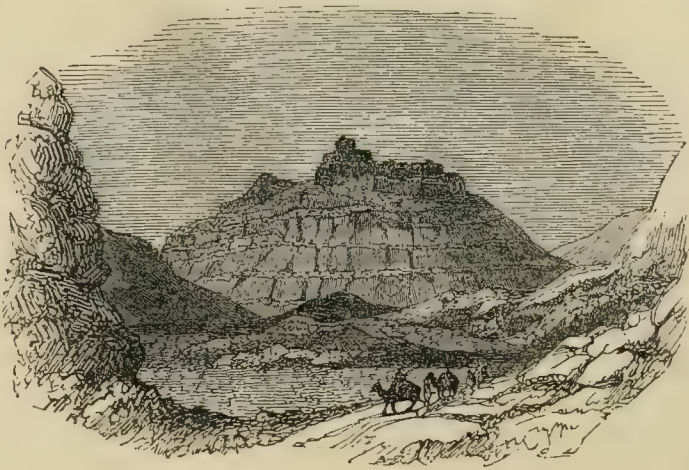
intended it should. Brutes, who never eat cooked dishes composed of twenty different ingredients, have not their senses thus blunted and corrupted. The cow, the sheep, the horse, all are guided, as they graze among a thousand kinds of herbs, by the certain and effectual power of smell, to choose those which are wholesome, and to reject those which are hurtful. Now, if mankind were as natural and simple in their habits as these animals, no doubt the sense of smell would be a good counsellor as to what food is good and what is bad.

There is one very curious thing to be noticed here, which is, that what is pleasant to one is offensive to another. Now, putrid meat is wholesome to a dog; it sets well upon his stomach; and accordingly it smells good to him. But such food would produce disease in man; and to him the smell of it is loathsome. This shows, very clearly, that the sense of smell is a kind of adviser to tell creatures how to select their food. It also induces us to avoid places where the air is tainted or impure; for we are liable

to contract diseases in such an atmosphere. Thus it is obvious that the sense of smelling is important not only as a guide to health, but as a guardian against disease and death.

In many animals the sense of smell is very acute. The dog will trace his master's footsteps, by the scent alone, through the streets of a city, and amid a thousand other footsteps; he will follow the track of the fox, or the hare, or the bird, for hours after it has passed along. The vulture scents the carrion for miles; and the wolf, the hyæna, and the jackal, seem to possess a similar acuteness of scent.

While the sense of smell is thus sharp in some animals, others, which need it less, possess it in an inferior degree. Fishes have only a simple cavity on each side of the nose, through which water, impregnated with odors, flows, and communicates the sensation of smell. Many of the inferior animals, as worms, reptiles, and insects, have still less perfect organs of sensation; and probably possess the sense of smell only to a corresponding extent.



MOUNT CARMEL.

MOUNT CARMEL is a tall promontory, forming the termination of a range of hills, in the northern part of Palestine, and towards the sea. It is fifteen hundred feet high, and is famous for its caverns, which are said to be more than a thousand in number. Most of them are in the western part of it. Here also was the cave of the prophet Elijah. Both Elijah and Elisha used to resort to this mountain, and here it was that the former

opposed the prophets of Baal with such success. Here it was, too, that this prophet went up, when he told his servant to look forth towards the sea yet seven times, and the seventh time he saw a cloud coming from the sea "like a man's hand" — when the prophet knew the promised rain was at hand, and girded up his loins and ran before Ahab's chariot even to the gates of Jezreel. (See 1 Kings xviii. 4—46.)



THE MOCKING-BIRD.

In external appearance, the mocking-bird may be described as a plain, homespun creature, dressed in feathers of a Quaker color. It is not quite so large as our robin, and its form is more delicate and slender. It has a spirited look, however, and is exceedingly active and vigorous.

The chief fame of this bird arises from its power as a singer: of all our American wood minstrels, it is the most celebrated. It is called MOCKING-BIRD from its habit of imitating various sounds. It has a curious knack at stringing together the songs of other birds, weaving them all into one liquid melody, and introducing, at proper intervals, imitations of barking dogs, squealing pigs, or perhaps a crying boy.

Yet the song of this bird is not wholly made up of imitations; it has strains of its own, which are greatly varied, the same notes or airs being seldom repeated. In general its music is more remarkable for vigor than sweetness; but sometimes its notes become soft and tender, and melt into the heart like the cooings of the dove, or the warblings of the nightingale.

The mocking-bird is an inhabitant of the south, its chosen haunts seeming to be in the region of Louisiana, or the adjacent country; still it often ventures further north, and during midsummer, it may be seen building its nest, or rearing its young, amid the thickets of Maryland and Pennsylvania.

In truth, I remember to have seen a pair of them in the western part of Massachusetts, and I have no doubt they had a nest there; but these must have been very eccentric birds, or perhaps some ill luck had attended them, or perhaps they had got a bad character among their neighbors, and were thus induced to stray so widely from the haunts of their kindred.

Mr. Audubon, who has given us such beautiful books about birds, tells us that the rattlesnake sometimes makes an attack upon the nest of the mocking-bird, in the southern country, and he gives us a picture of such a scene, from which our cut is copied. What must be the horror of the poor birds on seeing the approach of the venomous reptile! Yet we are told that they make a vigorous defence; flying at the intruder and attacking his eyes with their beaks. In such a contest they frequently come off victorious, and sometimes the serpent is glad to make his retreat with the loss of an eye, if he escapes having his skull beaten in.

It is impossible not to feel a sympathy with these poor birds, as we see them in the picture; but we suppose they would feel quite as badly to have their nest destroyed, or their eggs stolen, or their young ones carried off, by a monster called Ben, Bill, or John, as by a monster called Rattlesnake!



OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

THERE are few names which convey to the mind more pleasant emotions than that of Oliver Goldsmith. He was born at Pallas, in Ireland, November 10, 1728. His father was a poor clergyman with seven children, of whom Oliver was the fifth. The latter was deemed a dull boy, and he was thought unfit for any learned profession. It was supposed that he might make a tolerable merchant, and with this view he was turned over to the care of the village schoolmaster.

Young Oliver had plenty of good stuff in him, and it soon began to show itself in flashes of wit, and a curious turn for making rhymes. His uncle and other relatives now thought him good for something, and accordingly he was sent to college in 1744. Here he had a bad tutor, and the boy became idle and unruly. In the mean time his father died, and, after a time, his uncle induced him to attempt to enter the church as a minister; but, on application for a license, he was rejected. He now determined to study law, and being furnished by his uncle with a sum of money for the purpose, he set off for London, to take rooms in what is called the Temple. Stopping at Dublin, he engaged in gambling, and lost every penny in his purse. He was obliged to return home; but the kindness of his uncle was not yet exhausted. He forgave his offences, and sent him to Edinburgh, to study medicine. In two years he went to Leyden, in Holland, where he continued his studies, though leading a dissipated and irregular life.

Though he was entirely without money, and had only one clean shirt, young Gold-

smith now resolved to make the tour of Europe. Accordingly he set out on foot, and, strange to say, travelled through France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, during which time he appears to have fared very well. He had some knowledge of music, and carried with him a small musical instrument. At night, when he wanted lodging, or at other times, when he needed a meal, he would approach the house of a farmer or a mechanic, and begin to play one of his merry Irish tunes. The people were always pleased with the music, and the poor traveller received the lodging or food which he needed.

After travelling in this way for a year, Goldsmith returned to London. He was entirely destitute of money, and was glad of any employment which gave him subsistence. At first he became assistant in a school, then he served in an apothecary's shop, and after a time set up as a physician. By the practice of medicine, and writing for magazines, he managed to get a living. At last, he was arrested for a small sum of money, and, while under arrest, sold his beautiful story of the "Vicar of Wakefield." For this his friend, the celebrated Dr. Johnson, got him sixty pounds, or about three hundred dollars.

His reputation as a writer soon rose very high, and at intervals he published the "Traveller," the "Deserted Village," the "Hermit," and other charming works, which have rendered his name so dear to all readers of English. He wrote several comedies, one of which, "She Stoops to Conquer," was very successful, and brought him considerable money. He also wrote

pleasing histories of Rome, Greece, and England, and a large work entitled "A History of the Earth and Animated Nature." For the latter he received more than 4000 dollars.

Goldsmith had now many friends, great fame, and the means of living in affluence. But, unhappily, he was entirely destitute of self-government. Great as was his genius, wonderful as was his power of delighting mankind, he indulged his passions, often drank to excess, and frequently lost large sums in gambling. He was thus in constant trouble, and a source of vexation and anxiety to his friends. In 1774, he was taken ill of a fever, and his mind being disturbed by the poverty which haunted him, the disease made rapid strides, and on the 4th of April he died, at the age of 45.

The life of Goldsmith is full of instruction. He was endowed by nature with great genius, but owing to weakness of character this did not insure happiness. He had not strength of purpose sufficient to induce him to pursue any object steadily. He was too idle and capricious to qualify himself for a profession, or to succeed in the practice of it. He became an author merely for subsistence, and wrote only as much and as often as his necessities required. He was ever ready to yield to the impulse of the moment, and was thus frequently drawn into difficulty. While he has contributed largely to the pleasure and profit of mankind, his own life was but a series of disappointments and sufferings.



ISABELLA, OF SPAIN.

ISABELLA, queen of Castile, was born at Madrigal, in that kingdom, April 22, 1451. Her father, John II., after an inglorious reign of forty-eight years, died in 1454, lamenting that he had not been born the son of a mechanic, instead of King of Castile. Isabella had but a slender prospect of obtaining the crown during the early

part of her life. She had two brothers, Henry and Alfonso, the former of whom acceded to the throne at the death of John. Isabella retired with her mother to the little town of Arevalo, where she lived many years in obscurity. Her mother, who appears to have been a woman of a strong religious turn of mind, bestowed great care on her education, and inculcated the strictest lessons of piety upon her daughter, which did not fail to exercise an important influence upon her future career. On the birth of a daughter to her brother, Isabella was removed from her retirement to the royal palace, by Henry, who, being disliked by his subjects, feared the formation of a party adverse to his interests. At the royal court, surrounded by all the pleasures and seductions most dazzling to youth, she did not forget the early lessons imbibed in her seclusion, and the blameless purity of her conduct shone with additional lustre amid the scenes of levity and licentiousness by which she was surrounded.

Before this event, she had been solicited in marriage by various suitors, among whom was Ferdinand of Arragon, who afterwards became her husband. His first application, however, was unsuccessful. She was next betrothed to his elder brother, Carlos, while yet a mere child. That prince dying before the marriage could be completed, she was promised by her brother to Alfonso, King of Portugal. Isabella was but thirteen at this time, and the disparity of their ages was such that neither threats nor entreaties could induce her to consent to the union. The selfish and unprincipled Henry, who looked upon his sister only as an object of trade, next made an attempt to dispose of her for the purpose of gaining over a powerful family in Castile, which gave him great trouble by their opposition. He offered her in marriage to Don Pedro Giron, grand master of the order of Calatrava. This man was well known to be a most detestable character. He was a fierce and turbulent leader of a faction, and his private life was stained with almost every vice. Such a person, vastly inferior in birth, was selected as the husband of the young and virtuous Isabella. The pope granted a dispensation from the vow of celibacy, which the grand master, as the companion of a religious order, had been obliged to utter, and splendid preparations were immediately made for the nuptials.

Isabella was at this time in her sixteenth year. When she understood in what manner she was now to be sacrificed to the self-

ish policy of her brother, and that, in case she proved reluctant, compulsory measures were to be adopted, she was filled with the liveliest grief and indignation. She confined herself in her apartment, abstaining from all food and sleep for a day and a night, imploring Heaven, in the most piteous manner, to save her from this dishonor, even at the cost of her life. As she was bewailing her hard fate to her faithful friend, Beatriz de Bobadilla, that high-spirited lady exclaimed, "God will not permit it; neither will I;" and drawing forth a dagger from her bosom, she solemnly vowed to plunge it into the heart of the master of Calatrava as soon as he appeared. The affair, happily, did not come to so tragical a catastrophe. Her dreaded suitor was suddenly carried off by sickness, in the midst of his magnificent preparations.

Troubles now began to thicken around the weak and vicious Henry. His subjects, disgusted with his administration, rose in arms against him. Castile was afflicted with all the horrors of anarchy and civil war. Isabella retired for shelter to a monastery at Avila. The confederated nobles, who were in arms against the king, offered her the crown of Castile, which she had the prudence and magnanimity to refuse. This led to a negotiation with the king, and the civil war was closed by a treaty between the parties, in which it was stipulated that Isabella should be immediately recognized heir to the crown of Castile and Leon. Her brother Alfonso had recently died, and Joanna, the daughter of Henry, was believed by the people to be a supposititious offspring. Isabella's prospects of a throne having now assumed a certain character, drew the attention of neighboring princes, who contended with each other for the honor of her hand. She gave the preference to Ferdinand of Arragon, and they were married in 1469. On the death of Henry, in 1474, they were conjointly declared king and queen of Castile. A party, however, existed in favor of Joanna, and Alfonso IV., King of Portugal, entered Castile at the head of an army, publicly espoused her, and assumed the regal title. His defeat at the battle of Toro, in 1475, was fatal to his pretensions, and, by a peace concluded in 1479, the right of Isabella and her husband was fully acknowledged. In that year Ferdinand succeeded to the crown of Arragon; and from that time the kingdoms of Castile and Arragon were inseparably united, comprising the whole of Spain not possessed by the Moors.

Isabella, who was high-spirited and jealous of her authority, governed Castile as the real sovereign, and her husband had the policy to concur, with apparent cordiality, in her measures. In 1481, hostilities were commenced against the Moors of Grenada; and, after a war of ten years, that kingdom was subdued by the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella. By this event the whole of Spain was restored to the Christian dominion; and, in honor of an achievement so auspicious, the two sovereigns received the distinguishing title of "the Catholic." In this war Isabella engaged with all the ardor of religious zeal; and though Ferdinand joined in her plans with perfect harmony, yet he seems to have acted in a secondary capacity. Soon after this, the Jews were expelled from Spain—an act of bigotry and injustice certainly countenanced by Isabella, but owing chiefly to the fanatic religious zeal of the inquisitor-general, Torquemada, her confessor, who, while the king and queen were deliberating on the acceptance of an offer of thirty thousand ducats made by the Jews to avert the threatened edict of expulsion, suddenly burst into their presence, and, drawing forth a crucifix from beneath his mantle, held it up, exclaiming, "Judas Iscariot sold his Master for thirty pieces of silver. Your highnesses would sell him anew for thirty thousand. Here he is; take him, and barter him away." So saying, he threw the crucifix on the table, and left the apartment. This bold stroke of priestly impudence was completely successful. The sovereigns were overawed, and the edict was signed.

A deed more glorious to the memory of Isabella was the generous patronage she bestowed upon Columbus, and which was the sole means that enabled that heroic adventurer to accomplish his great undertaking of the discovery of the western world. After he had failed in all his attempts in other quarters, he at length found a friend in the queen, who, rejecting the advice of her narrow-minded and timid counsellors, exclaimed, "I will assume the undertaking for my own crown of Castile, and am ready to pawn my jewels to defray the expenses of it, if the funds in the treasury shall be found inadequate." Under her auspices Columbus achieved his great discovery; and Isabella may be called the mother of the western world. She continued a constant friend and protector of Columbus during her life; and her death proved an overwhelming disaster to him.

During the war against the Moors,

Isabella shared in most of the campaigns, animating her husband and generals by her courage and undaunted perseverance; providing for the support of the armies by her forethought and economy; comforting them under their reverses by her sweet and gracious speeches, and pious confidence in Heaven; and by her active humanity and her benevolent sympathy, extended to friend and foe, softening, as far as possible, the miseries of war. She was the first who appointed regular military surgeons to attend the movements of the army, and be at hand on the field of battle. These surgeons were paid out of her own revenues; and she also provided six spacious tents, furnished with beds and all things requisite for the sick and wounded, which were called the "Queen's Hospital." Thus to the compassionate heart of a woman, directed by energy and judgment, the civilized world was first indebted for an expedient which has since saved so many lives, and accomplished so much towards alleviating the frightful evils of war.

Isabella's confessor, the Dominican Torquemada, had, from the beginning, earnestly labored to infuse into her young mind, to which his situation gave him such ready access, the same spirit of fanaticism that glowed in his own. Fortunately, this was in a great degree counteracted by her sound understanding and natural kindness of heart. But he is said to have extorted a promise that, "should she ever come to the throne, she would devote herself to the extirpation of heresy, for the glory of God, and the extension of the Catholic faith." The fulfilment of this promise being afterwards insisted on, led to the establishment of the Inquisition in her dominions, the darkest spot that exists upon her character. It was not till she had endured the repeated importunities of the clergy, particularly of those revered persons in whom she most confided, that she consented to this measure.

It was under the auspices of Isabella that Cardinal Ximenes introduced his famous reforms into the religious orders of Spain, and began the work of correcting the horrible abuses which had crept into the government of the convents. This attempt was strongly resisted, and occasioned a general outcry of the clergy. The general of the Franciscans waited on the queen, and remonstrated in high terms against this interference with the privileges of his order; at the same time reflecting severely on Cardinal Ximenes, and his influence over her

mind. Isabella listened to this turbulent friar with some impatience; but, little accustomed to be dictated to in this style, she at length arose from her seat, and desired him to remember who he was, and to whom he spoke. "Madam," replied the monk, undauntedly, "I remember that I am but ashes and dust, and that I speak to Queen Isabella, who is but dust and ashes, like myself." She immediately turned from him with a look of cool disdain. The next day he was ordered to quit the kingdom; and Ximenes, supported by the royal power, pursued his system of reformation.

Isabella was a patron of literature. The first printing-press set up in Spain was established at Burgos, under her auspices, and all printed books, and foreign and classical works, were imported free of duty. Through her zeal and patronage, the University of Salamanca rose to that eminence which it assumed among the learned institutions of that period, and rivalled those of Pisa and Padua. She prepared the way for that golden age of Spanish literature which immediately succeeded her. Her own love of study is evinced by the fact, that, after she was firmly seated on the throne, she applied herself to the task of remedying the defects of her early education, by a diligent application to books, amid all the cares of state. She mastered the Latin language in less than a year's study.

Notwithstanding that Isabella adored her husband, she would never suffer him to interfere with her authority as an independent sovereign, and she was as jealous of her prerogative as Elizabeth of England; except, indeed, where priestly intimidation was applied. Her extreme deference for the ecclesiastics around her was a misfortune for her people, but consistently with the best points in her character, it could not have been otherwise. She was humane, just, and reasonable in all matters not influenced by the religious bigotry of the age. She declared the American Indians free, and ordered the instant return of several cargoes of them, which had been sent to Spain for slaves.

After a successful and glorious reign of thirty years, Isabella the Catholic died, on the twenty-sixth of November, 1504, in the fifty-fourth year of her age. Her last years were clouded with the deepest melancholy. The insanity and misfortunes of her daughter Joanna, and the domestic afflictions of her daughter Catherine of Arragon, lacerated her heart with sorrow. She pined

away in her lonely grandeur, till the deep and long-protracted melancholy invaded her constitution, and settled into a rapid and fatal decline.

The chief traits of Isabella's character may be gathered from the preceding narrative, to which we subjoin the parallel drawn between her and Elizabeth of England, by Mr. Prescott, whose History so ably and satisfactorily unfolds the events of her reign.

"It is in these more amiable qualities of her sex, that Isabella's superiority becomes most apparent over her illustrious namesake, Elizabeth of England, whose history presents some features parallel to her own. Both were disciplined in early life by the teachings of that stern nurse of wisdom, adversity. Both were made to experience the deepest humiliation at the hands of their nearest relative, who should have cherished and protected them. Both succeeded in establishing themselves on the throne, after the most precarious vicissitudes. Each conducted her kingdom, through a long and triumphant reign, to a height of glory which it never before reached. Both lived to see the vanity of all earthly grandeur, and to fall the victims of an inconsolable melancholy; and both left behind an illustrious name, unrivalled in the annals of their country.

"But with these few circumstances of their history, the resemblance ceases. Their characters afford scarcely a point of contact. Elizabeth, inheriting a large share of the bold and bluff King Harry's temperament, was haughty, arrogant, coarse, and irascible, while with these fiercer qualities she mingled deep dissimulation and strange irresolution. Isabella, on the other hand, tempered the dignity of royal station with the most bland and courteous manners. Once resolved, she was constant in her purposes; and her conduct in public and private life was characterized by candor and integrity. Both may be said to have shown that magnanimity which is implied by the accomplishment of great objects in the face of great obstacles. But Elizabeth was desperately selfish; she was incapable of forgiving, not merely a real injury, but the slightest affront to her vanity; and she was merciless in exacting retribution. Isabella, on the other hand, lived only for others; was ready at all times to sacrifice self to considerations of public duty; and, far from personal resentment, showed the greatest condescension and kindness to those who had most sensibly injured her;

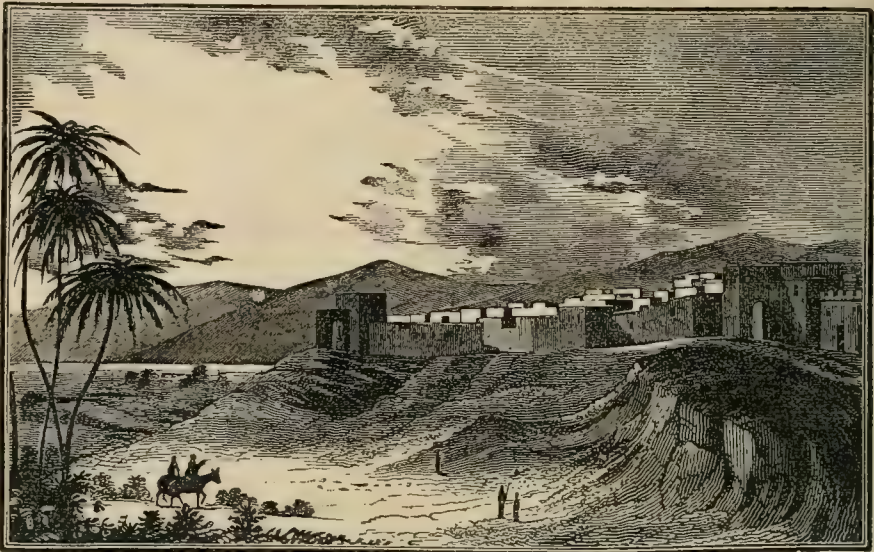
while her benevolent heart sought every means to mitigate the authorized severities of the law, even towards the guilty.

"Both possessed rare fortitude. Isabella, indeed, was placed in situations which demanded more frequent and higher displays of it than her rival; but no one will doubt a full measure of this quality in the daughter of Henry VIII. Elizabeth was better educated, and every way more highly accomplished, than Isabella. But the latter knew enough to maintain her station with dignity, and she encouraged learning by a munificent patronage. The masculine powers and passions of Elizabeth seemed to divorce her, in a great measure, from the peculiar attributes of her sex; at least from those which constitute its peculiar charm; for she had abundance of foibles; a coquetry and a love of admiration, which age could not chill; a levity most careless, if not criminal; and a fondness for dress and tawdry magnificence of ornament which was ridiculous or disgusting, according to the different periods of life in which it was indulged. Isabella, on the other hand, distinguished through life for decorum of manners and purity beyond the breath of calumny, was content with the legitimate affection which she could inspire within the range of her domestic circle. Far from a frivolous affectation of ornament or dress, she was most simple in her own attire, and seemed to set no value on her jewels, but as they could serve the necessities of the state; when they could be no longer useful in this way, she gave them away to her friends.

"Both were uncommonly sagacious in the selection of their ministers, though Elizabeth was drawn into some errors, in this particular, by her levity, as was Isabella by her religious feeling. It was this, combined with her excessive humility, which led to the only grave errors in the administration of the latter. Her rival fell into no such errors; and she was a stranger to the amiable qualities which led to them. Her conduct was certainly not controlled by religious principle; and, though the bulwark of the Protestant faith, it might be difficult to say whether she were at heart most a Protestant or a Catholic. She viewed religion in its connection with the state,—in other words, with herself; and she took measures for enforcing conformity to her own views, not a whit less despotic, and scarcely less sanguinary, than those countenanced for conscience' sake by her more bigoted rival.

"This feature of bigotry, which has thrown a shade over Isabella's otherwise beautiful character, might lead to a disparagement of her intellectual power, compared with that of the English queen. To estimate this aright, we must contemplate the results of their respective reigns. Elizabeth found all the materials of prosperity at hand, and availed herself of them most ably to build up a solid fabric of national grandeur. Isabella created these materials. She saw the faculties of her people locked up in a death-like lethargy, and she breathed into them the breath of life, for those great and heroic enterprises which terminated in such glorious consequences to the monarchy. It is when viewed from the depressed position of her early days, that the achievements of her reign seem scarcely less than miraculous. The masculine genius of the English queen stands out relieved beyond its natural dimensions by its separation from the softer qualities of her sex; while her rival, like some vast and symmetrical edifice, loses, in appearance, somewhat of its actual grandeur, from the perfect harmony of its proportions.

"The circumstances of their deaths, which were somewhat similar, displayed the great dissimilarity of their characters. Both pined amidst their royal state, a prey to incurable despondency, rather than any marked bodily distemper. In Elizabeth it sprang from wounded vanity; a sullen conviction that she had outlived the admiration on which she had so long fed, and even the solace of friendship, and the attachment of her subjects. Nor did she seek consolation where alone it was to be found, in that sad hour. Isabella, on the other hand, sank under a too acute sensibility to the sufferings of others. But, amidst the gloom which gathered around her, she looked, with the eye of faith, to the brighter prospects which unfolded of the future. And, when she resigned her last breath, it was with the tears and universal lamentations of her people. It is in this undying, unabated attachment of the nation, indeed, that we see the most unequivocal testimony to the virtues of Isabella. Her own subjects extol her as 'the most brilliant exemplar of every virtue,' and mourn over the day of her death as 'the last of the prosperity and happiness of the country;' while those who had nearer access to her person are unbounded in their admiration of those amiable qualities whose full power is revealed only in the unrestrained intimacies of domestic life."



BETHLEHEM.

THIS town is situated about five miles and a half south-east of Jerusalem. There is no doubt that the village called by the Arabs Beit Lahen, which means "House of Flesh," is the same as the ancient Bethlehem, which the Jews called "House of Bread."

The present inhabitants of Bethlehem are all Christians, and they amount to three thousand souls. The town has gates at some of the principal streets; the houses are solidly built, but are not large. There are many olive gardens, fig orchards and vineyards, round about, and the adjacent fields, though stony and rough, produce, nevertheless, good crops of grain. Here was the scene of the beautiful narrative of Ruth, gleaning in the field of Boaz, after his reapers. The inhabitants, besides their agriculture, employ themselves in carving beads, crucifixes, and models of the holy sepulchre, and other similar articles, in olive wood and mother-of-pearls. Indeed, the neatest and most skilfully wrought specimens of these articles come from Bethlehem.

About thirty rods from the village stands a large convent, occupied by Greeks, Latins, and Armenians. It encloses the church built by the Empress Helena over the spot where, according to tradition, our Saviour was born. Vast numbers of pilgrims come to view the place, especially at Easter, when such multitudes assemble, that the church is often crowded to suffocation, and contests frequently ensue between the dif-

ferent sects. On one occasion, the privilege of saying mass at the altar on Easter day was fought for at the door of the sanctuary itself, with drawn swords.

The pretended place of the nativity is a grotto or cave beneath the church, very splendidly ornamented with a marble pavement, recesses decorated with sculpture and painting, and massy silver lamps of exquisite workmanship. Just beneath the marble altar, upon the pavement, is a star, formed of inlaid stones, which marks the spot of the Saviour's birth, and is said to be placed immediately underneath the point where the star of the East became fixed, to direct the wise men in the object of their search.

This cave is not the only celebrated spot within the precincts of the church. One grotto is pointed out as the tomb of the Innocents; another possesses some interest as having been the abode of St. Jerome for many years. Another is shown as the spot where Joseph sat during the birth of Christ, and another is said to be the place where the Virgin Mary hid herself and her son from the fury of Herod.

The most remarkable spot in the neighborhood of Bethlehem is the reservoir called Solomon's pools. There are three of them, of great magnitude, the waters of which are discharged from one to another, and conveyed by an aqueduct to Jerusalem.

Bethlehem is celebrated in the Old Testament as the birthplace and city of David;

and in the New as that of David's greater Son, Christ, the Saviour of the world. For 1800 years the earth has renewed her carpet of verdure, and seen it again decay; yet the skies and the fields, the rocks and the hills, and the valleys around, remain unchanged, and are still the same as when the glory of the Lord shone about the shepherds, and the song of a multitude of the heavenly host resounded among the hills, proclaiming, "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace, good-will toward men!"



MRS. WASHINGTON.

MARTHA DANDRIDGE was born in the county of New Kent, Virginia, in May, 1732. Her education was entirely of a domestic character, there being no schools in the region where she dwelt. As she grew up, she was distinguished for personal beauty, pleasing manners, and general amiability of demeanor. She frequently appeared at the court of Williamsburg, then held by the royal governors of Virginia, and became a general favorite.

At the age of seventeen, she was married to Daniel Park Custis, of her native county, and the new-married couple were settled at

the White House, on the banks of the Pamunkey river. Mr. Custis devoted himself to agricultural pursuits, and became an eminently successful planter. They had four children, two of whom died at an early period. Martha arrived at womanhood, and died at Mount Vernon, in 1770, and John perished at the age of twenty-seven, while in the service of his country, at the siege of Yorktown, in 1781. Mr. Custis died at about middle age, leaving his widow still young, yet possessed of an ample fortune. Besides extensive landed estates, she had £30,000 sterling in money.

Mrs. Custis was sole executor of her husband's will, and she appears to have been well qualified to discharge the duties which devolved upon her. She conducted her affairs with surprising ability, and the concerns of her extensive fortune seemed to thrive under her management. In 1758, Colonel Washington, then twenty-six years of age, became accidentally acquainted with the fair widow, and, after a brief courtship, they were married. This occurred in 1759. Soon after, they removed to Mount Vernon, which henceforward became their permanent residence.

Mrs. Washington had no children by this second marriage. Martha and John Custis were, however, fully adopted into the affections of her present husband. In discharging her various domestic duties, and rearing her children, time flowed smoothly on for almost twenty years. In 1775, Washington, being appointed commander-in-chief of the American army, proceeded to Cambridge, and did not return to Mount Vernon till after the peace of 1783, except in a single instance. In December, she proceeded to Cambridge, and joined her husband. Here she remained till spring, having witnessed the siege and evacuation of Boston. She then returned to Virginia.

During the war, it was the custom for the general to despatch an aid-de-camp to Mount Vernon, at the close of each campaign, to escort his wife to head-quarters. The arrival of Lady Washington, as she was now called, at the camp, was an event always anticipated with pleasure, and was the signal for the ladies of the general officers to join their husbands. The appearance of the aid-de-camp, escorting the plain family chariot, with the neat postilions in their scarlet and white liveries, was deemed an epoch in the army, and served to diffuse a cheering influence even amid the gloom which hung over our destinies, at Valley Forge, Morristown, and West Point. She always remained at head-quarters till the opening of the campaign, and she often remarked, in after life, that it had been her fortune to hear the first cannon at the opening, and the last at the closing, of the several campaigns of the war.

During the whole period of the revolutionary struggle, she preserved her equanimity, together with a degree of cheerfulness which inspired all around her with the brightest hopes of final success. The glorious results of the campaign of 1781 were, however, associated with an event most afflictive to her. John Custis, now her only child, had accompanied Washington to the

siege of Boston, and had witnessed the most important events of the contest. At Yorktown, he was one of the aids of Washington, and lived to see the surrender of the British army on the 19th of October; but he died soon after of camp fever, which was then raging to a frightful extent within the enemy's intrenchments.

The war being closed, Washington returned to Mount Vernon. His time was now occupied in the peaceful pursuits of private life. He cultivated his lands, and improved his residence at Mount Vernon by additional buildings, and the laying out of his gardens and grounds. He occasionally diversified his employments by the pleasures of the chase. Much of his time, however, was occupied in discharging the grateful duties of hospitality. His fame was spread far and wide, and his home was crowded with guests, among whom were often seen illustrious strangers from foreign lands. During this happy period, Mrs. Washington performed the duties of a Virginia housewife, and presided at her well-spread board, with an ease and elegance of manner suited to her character and station.

The period at length arrived when Washington was again to leave his home, and enter upon public duties. Being elected president of the United States, he set out, in the spring of 1789, to join Congress at New York, then the seat of the general government. Accompanied by his lady, he proceeded to that city, everywhere received by crowds of people, showering upon him their most grateful homage. At Trenton, New Jersey, he was received in a manner which is said to have affected him even to tears. In addition to the usual military compliments, the bridge over the creek running through the town was covered with a triumphal arch, supported by thirteen pillars, entwined and ornamented with flowers and laurel, and bearing on the front, in large gilt letters, this inscription:—

"THE DEFENDER OF THE MOTHERS
WILL BE THE
PROTECTOR OF THE DAUGHTERS."

Here were assembled the mothers and daughters dressed in white, each bearing a basket of flowers, which were strewn before the chief, while they sung in chorus,

"Welcome, mighty chief, once more,
Welcome to this grateful shore;
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow,
Aims at thee the fatal blow."

"Virgins fair and matrons grave,
Those thy conquering arms did save,
Build for thee triumphal bowers;
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers,
Strew your hero's way with flowers."

Arrived at New York, the president's establishment was formed upon a scale partaking at once of simplicity and dignity. "The house was handsomely furnished; the equipages neat, with horses of the first order; the servants wore the family liveries; and, with the exception of a steward and housekeeper, the whole establishment differed very little from that of a private gentleman. On Tuesdays, from three to four o'clock, the president received the foreign ambassadors and strangers who wished to be introduced to him. On these occasions, and when opening the session of Congress, he wore a dress sword. His personal apparel was always remarkable for being old-fashioned, and exceedingly plain and neat.

"On Thursdays were the congressional dinners, and on Friday night, Mrs. Washington's drawing-room. The company usually assembled about seven, and rarely staid exceeding ten o'clock. The ladies were seated, and the president passed round the circle, paying his compliments to each. At the drawing-rooms, Mrs. Morris always sat at the right of the lady president, and at all dinners, public or private, at which Robert Morris was a guest, that venerable man was placed at the right of Mrs. Washington. When ladies called at the president's mansion, the habit was for the secretaries and gentlemen of the president's household to hand them to and from their carriages; but when the honored relicts of Greene and Montgomery came, the president himself performed these complimentary duties.

"On the great national festivals of the fourth of July and twenty-second of February, the sages of the revolutionary Congress and the officers of the revolutionary army renewed their acquaintance with Mrs. Washington. Many and kindly greetings took place, with many a recollection of the days of trial. The members of the Society of Cincinnati, after paying their respects to the chief, were seen to file off towards the parlor, where Lady Washington was in waiting to receive them, and where Wayne, and Mifflin, and Dickenson, and Stewart, and Moylan, and Hartley, and a host of veterans, were cordially welcomed as old friends, and where many an interesting reminiscence was called up, of the headquarters and the 'times of the revolution.'

"On Sundays, unless the weather was

uncommonly severe, the president and Mrs. Washington attended divine service at Christ Church; and in the evenings, the president read to Mrs. Washington, in her chamber, a sermon, or some portion of the sacred writings. No visitors, with the exception of Mr. Trumbull, of Connecticut,—who was then speaker of the house, and afterwards governor of Connecticut,—were admitted on Sunday.

"There was one description of visitors, however, to be found about the first president's mansion on all days. The old soldiers repaired, as they said, to head-quarters, just to inquire after the health of his excellency and Lady Washington. They knew his excellency was, of course, much engaged; but they would like to see the good lady. One had been a soldier of the life-guard; another had been on duty, when the British threatened to surprise the head-quarters; a third had witnessed that terrible fellow, Cornwallis, surrender his sword; each one had some touching appeal, with which to introduce himself at the peaceful head-quarters of the president. All were 'kindly bid to stay,' were conducted to the steward's apartments, and refreshments set before them; and, after receiving some little token from the lady, with her best wishes for the health and happiness of an old soldier, they went their ways, while blessings upon their revered commander and the good Lady Washington were uttered by many a war-worn veteran of the revolution."*

In the autumn of 1789, General Washington made a tour to the Eastern States. Soon after his return, Mrs. Washington addressed a letter to Mrs. Warren, of Boston, giving an account of her views and feelings at that period, which, as it is interesting for the information it contains, and alike creditable to the head and heart of the writer, we present to the reader. It is dated Dec. 26th, 1789.

"Your very friendly letter of last month has afforded much more satisfaction than all the formal compliments and empty ceremonies of mere etiquette could possibly have done. I am not apt to forget the feelings which have been inspired by my former society with good acquaintances, nor to be insensible to their expressions of gratitude to the president; for you know me well enough to do me the justice to believe that I am fond only of what comes from the heart. Under a conviction that the demonstrations of respect and affection to him orig-

* American Portrait Gallery.

inate in that source, I cannot deny that I have taken some interest and pleasure in them. The difficulties which first presented themselves to view on his first entering upon the presidency, seem thus to be in some measure surmounted. It is owing to the kindness of our numerous friends in all quarters that my new and unwished-for situation is not indeed a burden to me. When I was much younger, I should probably have enjoyed the innocent gayeties of life as much as most persons of my age; but I had long since placed all the prospects of my future happiness in the still enjoyments of the fireside at Mount Vernon.

"I little thought, when the war was finished, that any circumstances could possibly happen, which would call the general into public life again. I had anticipated that, from that moment, we should be suffered to grow old together in solitude and tranquillity. That was the first and dearest wish of my heart. I will not, however, contemplate with too much regret disappointments that were inevitable, though his feelings and my own were in perfect unison with respect to our predilection for private life. Yet I cannot blame him for having acted according to his ideas of duty in obeying the voice of his country. The consciousness of having attempted to do all the good in his power, and the pleasure of finding his fellow-citizens so well satisfied with the disinterestedness of his conduct, will, doubtless, be some compensation for the great sacrifices which I know he has made. Indeed, on his journey from Mount Vernon to this place, in his late tour through the Eastern States, by every public and every private information which has come to him, I am persuaded he has experienced nothing to make him repent his having acted from what he conceived to be a sense of indispensable duty. On the contrary, all his sensibility has been awakened in receiving such repeated and unequivocal proofs of sincere regard from his countrymen.

"With respect to myself, I sometimes think the arrangement is not quite as it ought to have been,—that I, who had much rather be at home, should occupy a place with which a great many younger and gayer women would be extremely pleased. As my grandchildren and domestic connections make up a great portion of the felicity which I looked for in this world, I shall hardly be able to find any substitute that will indemnify me for the loss of a part of such endearing society. I do not say this because I feel dissatisfied with my present station; for

everybody and everything conspire to make me as contented as possible in it; yet I have learned too much of the vanity of human affairs to expect felicity from the scenes of public life. I am still determined to be cheerful and happy in whatever situation I may be; for I have also learned from experience that the greater part of our happiness or misery depends on our dispositions, and not on our circumstances. We carry the seeds of the one or the other about with us in our minds wherever we go.

"I have two of my grandchildren with me, who enjoy advantages in point of education, and who, I trust, by the goodness of Providence, will be a great blessing to me. My other two grandchildren are with their mother in Virginia."

In the spring of 1797, bidding adieu to public life, Washington took leave of the seat of government, and returned to Mount Vernon, prepared in good earnest to spend the remainder of his days in retirement. He accepted, indeed, the command of the army of the United States, soon after; but this did not draw him from his home. In 1799, he died, after a brief illness. His affectionate partner was at the bedside when his spirit departed. "It is all over now," said she. "I shall soon follow him. I have no more trials to pass through." About two years after, she was seized with bilious fever. Being perfectly aware that her end was at hand, she assembled her grandchildren at her bedside, discoursed with them of their duties in life, of the happy influences of religion, of the consolations it had afforded her in hours of affliction, and the hopes it offered of a blessed immortality; and then, surrounded by weeping relatives, friends, and domestics, the venerable relict of Washington resigned her life into the hands of her Creator, in the seventy-first year of her age.

Few women have figured in the great drama of life, amid scenes so varied and imposing with so few faults, and so many virtues, as Martha Washington. Identified with the Father of his country in the great events which led to our national independence, she partook much of his thoughts, views, and counsels. In the dark hours of trial, her cheerfulness soothed his anxieties, and her devotional piety aided him in drawing hope and confidence from Heaven. She was indeed the fit partner of Washington, and, in her sphere, appears to have discharged her duties with a dignity, devotion, and consistency, worthy of her exalted destinies.



Maid of Orleans, from a statue by the Princess Maria, of France

JOAN OF ARC.

THIS interesting and extraordinary girl, surnamed the "Maid of Orleans," from her heroic defence of that city, was born about the year 1410 or '11, in the little hamlet of Domremy, near the Meuse, and about three leagues south of Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Champagne. Her parents were humble and honest peasants. The district was remarkable for the devout simplicity of its inhabitants, as well as for those romantic superstitions, which, in a rude age, are so often allied with religion. It appears from the copious depositions of witnesses from Domremy, examined at Joan's trial, that she was unremitting in her prayers and other religious exercises, and was strongly imbued, at a very early age, with the prevailing superstitions of her native place.

During that period of anarchy in France, when the supreme power, which had fallen from the hands of a monarch deprived of his reason, was contended for by the rival houses of Orleans and Burgundy, the con-

licting parties carried on war more by murder and massacre than by regular battles. When an army was wanted, both had recourse to the English; and these conquering strangers made the unfortunate French feel still deeper the horrors and ravages of war. At first, the popular feeling was undecided; but when, on the death of Charles VI., the crown fell to a young prince who adopted the Armagnac side, whilst the house of Burgundy had sworn allegiance to a foreigner, Henry V., as king of France, — then, indeed, the wishes and interests of all the French were in favor of the Armagnacs, or the truly patriotic party. Remote as was the village of Domremy, it was still interested in the issue of the struggle. It was decidedly Armagnac, and was strengthened in this sentiment by the rivalry of a neighboring village, which adopted Burgundian colors.

Political and party interests were thus forced upon the enthusiastic mind of Joan,

and mingled with the pious legends she had caught from the traditions of the Virgin. A prophecy was current that a virgin should rid France of her enemies, and this prophecy seems to have been realized by its effect upon the mind of Joan. The girl, by her own account, was about thirteen, when a supernatural vision first appeared to her. She described it as a great light, accompanied by a voice telling her to be devout and good, and promising her the protection of Heaven. Joan responded by a vow of eternal chastity. From that time, the voice or voices continued to haunt Joan, and to echo the enthusiastic and restless wishes of her own heart. Her own simple account was, that "voices" were her visitors and advisers, and that they prompted her to quit her native place, take up arms, drive the foe before her, and procure for the young king his coronation at Rheims. These voices, however, had not influence enough to induce her to set out upon the hazardous mission, until a band of Burgundians, traversing and plundering the country, had compelled Joan, together with her parents, to take refuge in a neighboring town. When they returned to their village, after the departure of the marauders, they found the church of Domremy in ashes.

Such incidents were well calculated to arouse the indignation and excite the enthusiasm of Joan. Her "voices" returned, and incessantly directed her to set out for Orleans, but to commence by making application to De Baudricourt, commander at Vaucouleurs. Her parents, who were acquainted with Joan's martial propensities, attempted to force her into a marriage; but she contrived to avoid this by paying a visit to an uncle, in whose company she made her appearance before the governor of Vaucouleurs, in May, 1428. De Baudricourt at first refused to see her, and upon granting an interview, treated her pretensions with contempt. She then returned to her uncle's abode, where she continued to announce her project, and to insist that the prophecy that "France, lost by a woman, — Isabel of Bavaria, — should be saved by a virgin from the frontiers of Lorraine," alluded to her. She it was, she asserted, who could save France, and not "either kings, or dukes, nor yet the King of Scotland's daughter," — an expression which proves how well-informed she was as to the political events and rumors of the day.

The fortunes of the dauphin Charles, at this time, had sunk to the lowest ebb. Orleans, almost his last bulwark, was besieged

and closely pressed, and the loss of the battle of "Herrings" seemed to take away all hope of saving the city from the English. In this crisis, when all human support seemed unavailing, Baudricourt no longer despised the supernatural aid promised by the damsel of Domremy, and gave permission to John of Metz, and Bertram of Poulengy, two gentlemen who had become converts to the truth of her divine mission, to conduct Joan of Arc to the dauphin. They purchased a horse for her, and, at her own desire, furnished her with male habits, and other necessary equipments. Thus provided, and accompanied by a respectable escort, Joan set out for Vaucouleurs on the thirteenth of February, 1429. Her progress through regions attached to the Burgundian interest was perilous, but she safely arrived at Fierbois, a place within five or six leagues of Chinon, where the dauphin then held his court. At Fierbois was a celebrated church, dedicated to St. Catherine; and here she spent her time in devotion, whilst a messenger was despatched to the dauphin to announce her approach. She was commanded to proceed, and reached Chinon on the eleventh day after her departure from Vaucouleurs.

Charles, though he desired, still feared, the proffered aid. After due consultation, however, it was concluded to grant Joan's request, and she received the rank of a military commander. A suit of armor was made for her, and she sent to Fierbois for a sword which, she said, would be found buried in a certain spot in the church. It was found there, and conveyed to her. The circumstance became afterwards one of the alleged proofs of her sorcery or imposture. Her having passed some time at Fierbois, among the ecclesiastics of the place, must have led, in some way or other, to her knowledge of the deposit. Strong in the conviction of her mission, it was Joan's desire to enter Orleans from the north, and through all the fortifications of the English. Dunois, however, and the other leaders at length overruled her, and induced her to abandon the little company of pious companions which she had raised, and to enter the beleaguered city by water, as the least perilous path. She succeeded in carrying with her a convoy of provisions to the besieged.

The entry of Joan of Arc into Orleans, at the end of April, was itself a triumph. The hearts of the besieged were raised from despair to a fanatical confidence of success; and the English, who in every

encounter had defeated the French, felt their courage paralyzed by the coming of this simple girl. We cannot give the details of the wonderful events that followed; it must suffice to say, that the French were inspired with the utmost courage, and after a series of great achievements, in which the wonderful maiden took the lead, the siege was raised. Thus, in one week after her arrival, the beleaguered city was relieved. The most incredible of her promises was now fulfilled, and she henceforth received the title of "Maid of Orleans."

The French now carried all before them, under the guidance of this maiden leader; and, in three months after she came to the relief of Charles, he was crowned at Rheims, which had surrendered to his arms. After

a series of successes, she was in one instance defeated, and finally was captured in a sally against the enemy, May, 1430. She was now handed over to the English partisans in France, brought to trial on the charge of sorcery, and condemned to death. A pile of wood was prepared in the market-place at Rouen, and, encircled by a body of judges and ecclesiastics, she was then burned to death, and her ashes thrown into the Seine. This took place in May, 1431. Thus perished one of the most pure, lovely, and exalted beings that ever lived. In 1454, a revision of her sentence took place, and a monument was erected to her honor, on the spot where she had been inhumanly put to death.



MOUNT VESUVIUS.

THIS famous volcano stands on the Bay of Naples, about eight miles from the city. In ancient times, it was remarkable for the luxuriance of the vegetation with which its sloping sides were covered; and the same may be seen at the present day, except in those spots laid waste by the streams of lava from the fiery eruptions to which the mountain is subject.

On three sides this mountain overlooks a rich plain; while on the fourth it descends more abruptly to the shore of that beautiful

bay, which, with its surrounding scenery, is justly regarded as one of the wonders of the world.

For a third of the way upward, the smooth brown side of the mountain appears dotted over with white houses, which are so numerous, near the base, as to form an uninterrupted line of buildings, for many miles in extent. Of the towns and villages to which these buildings belong, some contain ten thousand, and even fifteen thousand inhabitants.

The cone of Vesuvius, or that part which contains the crater, is a steep mass of cinders, lava, and scorïæ, rising high above the cultivated region of the mountain. Here the traveller must leave the mule or ass on which he has begun his ascent, and trust to his feet. The climbing this steep eminence is a work of great labor, from the sinking and sliding of the volcanic ashes under the feet. On reaching the top, he finds himself among broken crags of lava, from the crevices of which arise hot sulphurous steams, indicating the dangerous character of the ground on which he is treading.

The crater is a deep hollow, on the very summit of the cone. The spectator is struck with its vast magnitude—the ruggedness and appalling abruptness of the sides, which go shelving down to a dark abyss, which vomits smoke and fire from an unfathomable depth.

From this point, the distant prospect appears in surprising contrast with the stern and awful sublimity of the interior of the mountain. The beautiful Bay of Naples; the blue waters of the Mediterranean; the fairy isles of Ischia, Procida, and Capri;

the domes and towers of Naples; the lofty turrets of the castle of St. Elmo; the promontory of Posilippo, and the beautiful shore of Sorrento,—all compose a landscape which surpasses the most elaborate and gorgeous description. He who sees for the first time this unequalled panorama expanding before him, may be ready to exclaim, in the language of the Italian proverb, "See Naples, and then die!"

The eruptions of Vesuvius have often been terrific; sometimes burying towns and cities under showers of ashes and floods of lava. It more frequently discharges volleys of dry, impalpable dust, which is so fine as to be sustained for a considerable time in the higher regions of the atmosphere, where the thin tall stream accumulates and spreads out in the shape of an umbrella, or Italian pine-tree. The dusty particles then descend over a vast extent of country in a thick shower.

Fifty eruptions of Vesuvius have been recorded since the Christian era. The most violent was in the year 79, when Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed; on this occasion the ashes were carried through the air as far as Egypt and Syria.



ASKELON.

This is a city in the land of the Philistines, on the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. It was once a place of great importance and note among the Philistines, and was one of their seats of government. It is also famous for a temple dedicated to Apollo, at which Herod, the grandfather of Herod the Great, officiated as priest.

After the death of Joshua, the tribe of Judah took the city of Askelon.

The wine that is made in this city was very much esteemed, and the cypress-tree was also common. This was very much admired by the ancients for its grace and beauty. The modern town is called Scallona, and is a small and uninteresting place.



MEHEMET ALI.

MEHEMET ALI, the Pacha of Egypt, was a native of Albania, and appears to have been born in poverty. His father had ten children; and such was the spirit of Mehemet while yet a boy, that no one ever dared to contradict him. Before he was yet a man, he left his country, and travelled about, meeting with various adventures. Coming to Egypt, he enlisted as a soldier. He soon rose to the rank of captain, and, advancing by degrees, he attained the supreme command of the army. From this position it was an easy step to the throne. He accordingly became pacha or king of the whole country.

The disposition of Mehemet was despotic, and he is said to have boasted that he never had a master. He was not, however, like the preceding governors of Egypt. These were ignorant and selfish men, who ruled only to gratify themselves. They looked upon their subjects but as slaves created for the pleasure of their prince.

Mehemet had more elevated views, and was desirous of improving his country; but here a serious obstacle was in his way. The Mamelukes, a body of soldiers, collected from various countries, had long exercised a powerful sway in Egypt. No pacha had yet dared to oppose them, or interfere with

their wishes. Mehemet thought it necessary to get rid of them, and resorted to a terrible expedient for this purpose. In 1811, he invited them as if to a feast in the city of Cairo, the capital. When they were all assembled, amounting to several thousands, the cannon, which had been placed ready for the purpose, were discharged upon them at a given signal. The slaughter was terrible; all the proud Mamelukes were slain, except a few, who fled to other countries never to return.

Mehemet is absolute in his authority, but he governs according to certain rules and regulations. He has a council, consisting of his chief officers and the governors of provinces. He administers impartial justice to all his subjects, without regard to race or religion; has established regular judicial courts, and a good police; has abolished tortures and other barbarous punishments; has encouraged instruction to a certain extent; has removed most of the ignorant prejudices, which existed among his subjects, against the arts and learning of Europe, and has introduced European manufactures and machinery. He keeps a printing-office, and publishes a newspaper; has formed schools and colleges for the arts and sciences, and for military and naval tactics.

A recent traveller states that Mehmet Ali was born in 1769, the same year which gave birth to Napoleon and Wellington. We are not disposed to give much faith to this statement; for, as the pacha never learned to read till he was forty years old, it is probable that his own recollection of the year of his birth was not very clear, and the wish must have been father to the thought of fixing the date as above. In person, he is of middle size, and dresses very simply. He thinks much of his reputation, and the name which he will leave to posterity, and has for some years past employed his leisure hours in writing his

own history. He has the foreign newspapers translated into Turkish for his perusal, and is not insensible to any calumnies which they contain against him.

His activity is very great. In studying history, it is hardly necessary to state that the lives of Alexander the Great and Napoleon have given him the greatest satisfaction. He has always shown the utmost degree of toleration in religious matters, and, in spite of the prejudices of the people, has, in some instances, raised Christians to the rank of bey—a thing before unheard of among Mussulmans.



ORANG-OUTANG.

This animal possesses a countenance more nearly allied to man than that of any other. The frame is less like the human frame than that of the chimpanzee, a large species of ape found in Africa. It is capable of walking nearly erect, but the usual gait on the ground is like a cripple who supports himself on his hands, and draws his body forward. It is probable that it seldom walks on the ground in its native state, its home seeming to be on the trees.

A young orang-outang was brought to Boston, in 1831, from Borneo, and was exhibited in the country for nearly two years, when it died. It had very much the appearance of an unhappy little negro, who was sick of the world, and wished to have as little to do with its inhabitants as possible.

Another species was brought here recently which also died.

The orang-outang belongs to the family of apes; it has four hands, long arms, long fingers, with a thumb on each hand; all the fingers and the thumbs of the four hands are furnished with nails. He is covered with a thin coat of reddish-brown hair. He lives upon fruits, and in a wild state is fierce and formidable, being sometimes six or seven feet tall. When tame, he appears to acquire a quiet disposition, and has a grave, melancholy air. He is easily taught to sit in a chair, to drink in a cup, and to perform many actions in imitation of those around him. In the island of Borneo he grows to the size of a man; he then appears to possess great strength, and sometimes he is very savage.



RED JACKET.

SAGGWEWATHA, who was called Red Jacket by the whites, in consequence of his wearing such a garment when a boy, was of the Seneca tribe — one of the Six Nations. He was born about the year 1750, in the western part of the state of New York. He was of a plebeian family, and does not appear to have been gifted with military talents, yet he attained the highest distinction and influence among his tribe, solely by his powers of eloquence. Of the early part of his career little appears to be known. After the close of the revolutionary war, a great council of the Indian nations was held at Fort Schuyler for the settlement of affairs with the American commissioners. Red Jacket distinguished himself at this council by his opposition to the general wish for peace. He delivered a speech against "burying the hatchet," and urged the continuance of the war, with such eloquence and force, that the warriors were carried away by the magic of his oratory; and it was only by allowing time for the effect of it to dissipate, and the temper of his auditors to cool down

by sober reflection, that the more prudent and moderate of the chiefs were enabled to give a pacific turn to their deliberations.

About the year 1790, a council was held on the shore of Lake Canandaigua, to negotiate a purchase of land from the Indians. After two days spent in discussing the terms, a treaty was agreed upon, and only wanted the formality of a signature to make it complete, when Red Jacket, who had not yet been heard, arose to speak. An eye-witness thus describes the scene. "With the grace and dignity of a Roman senator, he drew his blanket around him, and with a piercing eye surveyed the multitude. All was hushed; nothing interposed to break the silence, save the gentle rustling of the tree-tops, under whose shade they were gathered. After a long and solemn, but not unmeaning pause, he commenced his speech in a low voice and sententious style. Rising gradually with the subject, he depicted the primitive simplicity and happiness of his nation, and the wrongs they had sustained from the usurpations of

white men, with such a bold but faithful pencil, that every auditor was soon roused to vengeance or melted into tears. The effect was inexpressible. But ere the emotions of admiration and sympathy had subsided, the white men became alarmed. They were in the heart of an Indian country, surrounded by more than ten times their number, who were inflamed by the remembrance of their injuries, and excited to indignation by the eloquence of a favorite chief. Appalled and terrified, the white men cast a cheerless gaze upon the hordes around them. A nod from the chiefs might be the onset of destruction. At this portentous moment, Farmer's-Brother interposed. He replied not to his brother chief, but with a sagacity truly aboriginal, he caused a cessation of the council, introduced good cheer, commended the eloquence of Red Jacket, and, before the meeting had reassembled, with the aid of other prudent chiefs, he had moderated the fury of his nation to a more salutary review of the question before them."

The fame of his great eloquence gained Red Jacket a powerful influence, not only in his own tribe, but among all the Six Nations of Indians. At one time he fell into discredit with his people, from what cause does not appear, and was denounced by his enemies as guilty of witchcraft. On this charge he was brought to trial, and defended himself in a speech three hours in length, which proved so effectual that he was acquitted. His reputation was greatly augmented by this occurrence. He was one of a deputation of his countrymen who visited Philadelphia, in 1792, and acted as chief spokesman in their negotiations with the governor.

He had a rooted antipathy to Christianity, which neither the lapse of time nor the persuasions of the white men could remove. He always opposed strongly the intrusion of missionaries among his people. In 1805, a missionary from Massachusetts visited Buffalo, and convened a council of the Indians, which comprised many of the Seneca chiefs and warriors. His purpose was to inculcate upon the savages the advantages they would derive from the introduction of Christianity among them. He delivered a discourse, in which he explained his object in calling them together. He informed them that he was sent by the great missionary society of Boston to teach them how to worship the Great Spirit, and not to defraud them of their lands and property; that there was only one true religion in the world, and unless they embraced it, they could not be

happy, and that they had lived in darkness and error all their lives. He wished, if the Indians had any objection to his religion, they would state it. After he had finished, they conferred together, and appointed Red Jacket to give their answer. He addressed the missionary in a speech which we shall quote entire. It exhibits genuine Indian shrewdness, and considerable force of argument.

"Friend and brother; it was the will of the Great Spirit that we should meet together this day. He orders all things, and he has given us a fine day for our council. He has taken his garment from before the sun, and caused it to shine with brightness upon us; our eyes are opened, that we see clearly; our ears are unstopped, that we have been able to hear distinctly the words that you have spoken; for all these favors we thank the Great Spirit, and him only.

"Brother, this council fire was kindled by you; it was at your request that we came together at this time; we have listened with attention to what you have said. You requested us to speak our minds freely; this gives us great joy, for we now consider that we stand upright before you, and can speak what we think; all have heard your voice, and all speak to you as one man; our minds are agreed.

"Brother, you say you want an answer to your talk before you leave this place. It is right you should have one, as you are a great distance from home, and we do not wish to detain you; but we will first look back a little, and tell you what our fathers have told us, and what we have heard from the white people.

"Brother, listen to what we say. There was a time when our forefathers owned this great island.* Their seats extended from the rising to the setting sun. The Great Spirit had made it for the use of Indians. He had created the buffalo, the deer, and other animals for food. He made the bear and the beaver, and their skins served us for clothing. He had scattered them over the country, and taught us how to take them. He had caused the earth to produce corn for bread. All this he had done for his Red Children because he loved them. If we had any disputes about hunting grounds, they were generally settled without the shedding of much blood. But an evil day came upon us; your forefathers crossed the great waters, and landed on this island. Their numbers were small; they found

* An opinion prevails among the Indians, that this country is an island.

friends, and not enemies. They told us they had fled from their own country for fear of wicked men, and come here to enjoy their religion. They asked for a small seat; we took pity on them, granted their request, and they sat down amongst us: we gave them corn and meat; *they gave us poison in return!* The white people had now found our country; tidings were carried back, and more came amongst us; yet we did not fear them, we took them to be friends; they called us brothers; we believed them, and gave them a larger seat. At length, their numbers had greatly increased; they wanted more land; they wanted our country. Our eyes were opened, and our minds became uneasy. Wars took place; Indians were hired to fight against Indians, and many of our people were destroyed. They also brought strong liquor among us; it was strong and powerful, and has slain thousands.

"Brother, our seats were once large, and yours were very small; you have now become a great people, and we have scarcely a place left to spread our blankets; you have got our country, but are not satisfied; you want to force your religion upon us.

"Brother, continue to listen. You say you are sent to instruct us how to worship the Great Spirit agreeably to his mind, and if we do not take hold of the religion which you white people teach, we shall be unhappy hereafter. You say that you are right, and we are lost; how do we know this to be true? We understand that your religion is written in a book; if it was intended for us as well as you, why has not the Great Spirit given it to us, and not only to us, but why did he not give to our forefathers the knowledge of that book, with the means of understanding it rightly? We only know what you tell us about it. How shall we know when to believe, being so often deceived by the white people?

"Brother, you say there is but one way to worship and serve the Great Spirit; if there is but one religion, why do you white people differ so much about it? Why not all agree, as you can all read the book?

"Brother, we do not understand these things. We are told that your religion was given to your forefathers, and has been handed down from father to son. We also have a religion which was given to our forefathers, and has been handed down to us through our children. We worship that way. It teacheth us to be thankful for all the favors we receive; to love each other, and to be united. We never quarrel about religion.

"Brother, the Great Spirit has made us all; but he has made a great difference between his white and red children; he has given us a different complexion, and different customs; to you he has given the arts; to these he has not opened our eyes; we know these things to be true. Since he has made so great a difference between us in other things, why may we not conclude that he has given us a different religion, according to our understanding? The Great Spirit does right; he knows what is best for his children; we are satisfied.

"Brother, we do not wish to destroy your religion, or take it from you; we only want to enjoy our own.

"Brother, you say you have not come to get our land or our money, but to enlighten our minds. I will now tell you that I have been at your meetings, and seen you collecting money from the meeting. I cannot tell what this money was intended for, but suppose it was for your minister; and if we should conform to your way of thinking, perhaps you may want some from us.

"Brother, we are told that you have been preaching to the white people in this place. These people are our neighbors; we are acquainted with them; we will wait a little while and see what effect your preaching has upon them. If we find it does them good, makes them honest and less disposed to cheat Indians, we will then consider again what you have said.

"Brother, you have now heard our answer to your talk, and this is all we have to say at present. As we are going to part, we will come and take you by the hand, and hope the Great Spirit will protect you on your journey, and return you safe to your friends."

The Senecas took part with the United States in the war of 1812. The practice of employing the savages in hostilities had always been condemned by the people of this country, but as the British government had set the example, and strengthened their armies materially by Indian auxiliaries, it began to be questioned whether such a system ought not to be turned against them. Grand Island, in the river Niagara, belonged to the Senecas, and when the British threatened to invade it, the Indians determined to take up arms in its defence. They were accordingly permitted to join the American forces on the Niagara frontier. Red Jacket was one of their leaders, and distinguished himself in an action near Fort George, on the 17th of August, 1813, in which the British and their Indian allies were defeated.

The prisoners were all treated with humanity; nor was any excess committed by the savages on the American side during the war.

After the peace, Red Jacket professed to feel himself much annoyed by the attempts of missionaries to establish themselves among his people. In 1821, he made a formal complaint against them to the governor of New York, in a letter dictated by himself, which we have not space to copy. About the same time, a squaw of the Senecas was put to death on the accusation of witchcraft. The Americans took the matter in hand, and put the executioner on trial. Red Jacket and other witnesses testified that the woman was a witch, and had been legally tried and executed. The doctrine of witchcraft was ridiculed by the Americans; to which he made a reply, reminding them, — if we may take his recorded speech as genuine, — of the transactions at Salem. Before he was admitted to give evidence at the trial, he was questioned whether he be-

lieved in the existence of a God, and a future state of rewards and punishments. He replied, with stern indignation, "*Yes! much more than the white men, if we are to judge by their actions.*" The trial was carried through three terms, and the prisoner was finally acquitted.

Red Jacket continued to enjoy great distinction to the day of his death. His residence was a log cabin, situated in a lonely spot near Buffalo. Scarcely a traveller passed that way without calling to visit a chief so celebrated for his wisdom and eloquence. He understood English well, yet refused constantly to converse in it, and would not even reply to a speech till it had been translated into his own language by an interpreter. This rigid adherence to an ancient formality reminds us of the practice of the English sovereigns, who continue to sanction or reject acts of parliament in the language of William the Conqueror. Red Jacket died on the 20th of January, 1830.



FROGS.

FROGS, with their cousins, the toads, are what are called *amphibious*. We have heard a queer explanation of this word: a show-man, speaking of an alligator that he had on exhibition, said "that it was amphibious;" that is, said he, "it dies on the land, and can't live in the water." He only got it reversed: he should have said, that he lived equally well in the water and on the land.

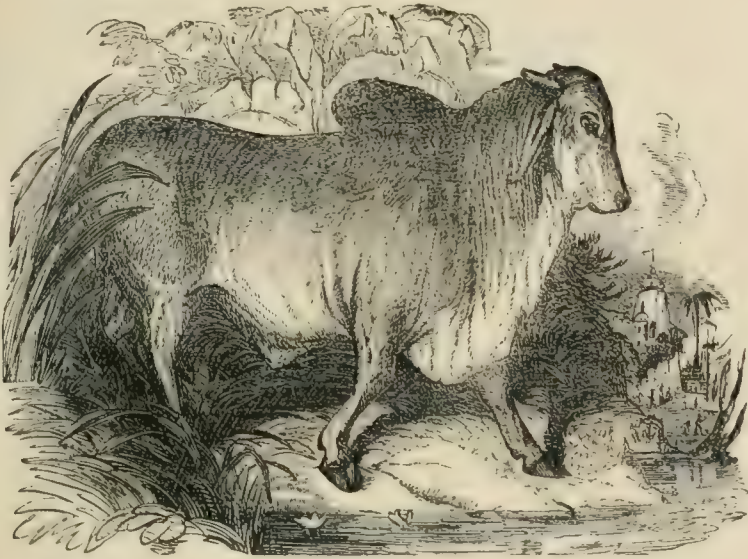
Frogs are the best of all four-footed swimmers; they never deign to walk or run; but they are great jumpers. The frog is rather more slender, and more lively than the toad. The latter is, indeed, a dull, stupid fellow, and often looks like a mere lump of dirt. Many people dislike toads, and some fancy that they are poisonous. But nothing is more innocent, or harmless.

Frogs are hatched from eggs, in about forty days after they are laid. In about two days after being hatched they assume the tadpole or pollywog form, and feed on pond-weed. When they are three months old, two small feet sprout out near the tail; in a few days more the arms are formed; and now the frog is every way perfectly formed, except that it has a tail! During this state the creature eats very little, and is seen to rise frequently to the top of the water to take breath. He has always before lived like a fish, beneath the wave, but as he is now changing his state, he must get acquainted with the world above the water. In a few hours the tail drops off, and the frog, the real genuine frog, is complete! And one most wonderful thing is this: the an-

imal not only changes his form and habits, but his food also. While a tadpole, he fed on grass; while a frog, he lives entirely on animal food, as insects and worms. As he cannot find enough of them in the water, he goes forth to hunt them, and takes insects by surprise!

Some people, seeing great quantities of toads and frogs in time of a shower, fancy that they are rained down from the clouds. It may be that these little creatures are sometimes scooped up by a whirlwind, or water-spout, and carried to some distant place, when they fall with the rain; but, in general, the abundance of these creatures after a shower is to be accounted for by the fact that at such a time they all come forth from their lurking-places.

Frogs live chiefly on the land, but when cold weather comes, they dive down in the mud, and lie there, in a torpid state, till spring comes back, when they salute its return with a great variety of notes. Some of these are rather plaintive and pleasing; but others are almost as loud and coarse as the voices of bulls. These bellowing frogs are sometimes called Dutch nightingales. In early times these creatures were so numerous in France, that they waked up the people early in the morning. The rich men used, therefore, to require their servants to go out and beat the frogs and keep them quiet, till they could get through with their morning nap.

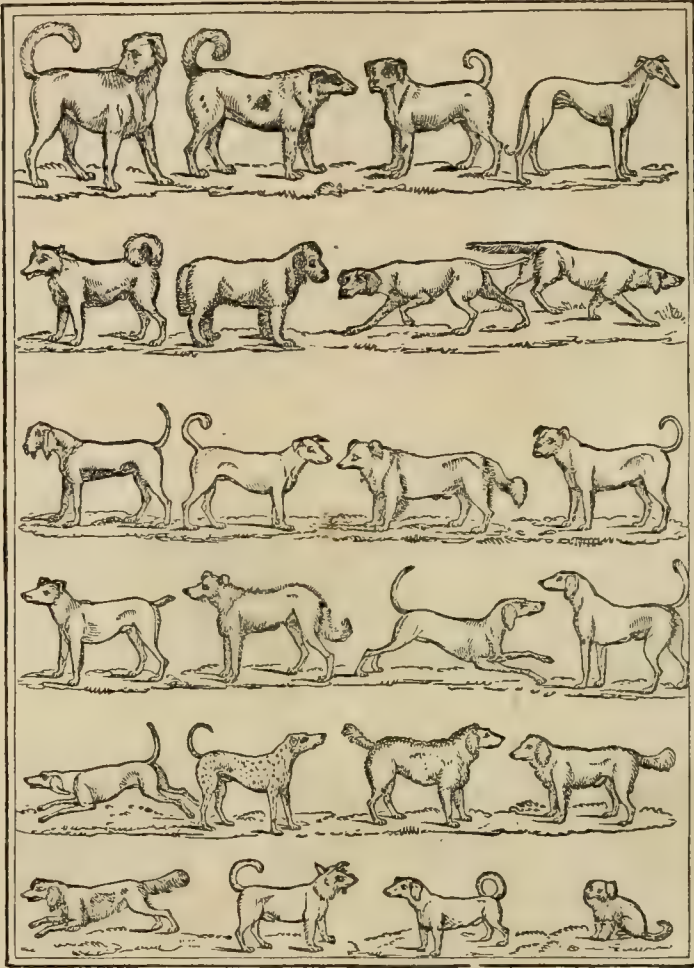


THE ZEBU, OR INDIAN OX.

THE most common of the East Indian breeds of the ox kind is the zebu, a humped variety, the smallest specimens of which are not bigger than a full-grown mastiff, while others are found almost as large as the finest of our English cows. The zebu has been considered by naturalists as not a distinct species, but only a degenerate kind of bison, diminished in size by scantiness of food, which has a decided effect upon the bulk of all horned cattle. We see, also, that the horse dwindles into a pony in the Shetland Isles, and why not the ox shrink into a zebu?

The zebu, like the bison, is extremely gentle when tamed, and very useful to mankind, both as affording food and serving for a beast of draught or burden. These ani-

mals are employed in pairs to draw a two-wheeled vehicle, called *gadee*, which holds but one person, and is used by the wealthy Hindoos. When destined for this purpose, their horns, when young, are bent so as to grow nearly upright, inclining backwards a little toward the top. They are often covered with rich carpets; adorned with rings and chains of gold and other metal, and their legs and chests painted with various colors. The women of the lower classes, in India, frequently travel on bullocks, which they ride astride upon a very large saddle. The animals have bells hung round their necks, and are guided by means of a cord passed through the nostrils.



THE SEVERAL VARIETIES OF DOGS.

THE above engraving represents the most remarkable kinds of dogs. The following is a description of them, beginning at the left hand of the top row.

1. Irish greyhound, — the largest species.
2. Newfoundland, web-footed, fond of the water, and remarkable for his sagacity.
3. Mastiff, a favorite as a guard.
4. Greyhound, the fleetest of all dogs.
5. Esquimaux, used to draw the sledges of the Esquimaux.
6. Large, rough water dog, used in hunting ducks.
7. Spanish pointer, a favorite with sportsmen.

8. Setter, a fine sporting dog.
9. Old English greyhound, now very scarce.
10. Bandog, a rare species, resembling the mastiff.
11. Shepherd's dog, used in Europe for tending sheep.
12. Bull-dog, the fiercest of all dogs.
13. Cur-dog, active and sagacious.
14. Lurcher, used for killing hares and rabbits.
15. Fox-hound, used for pursuing foxes.
16. Harrier, strong and active.
17. Beagle, used in pursuing hares.
18. Dalmatian, used as an attendant upon a coach. Handsome, but otherwise useless.

19. Large water spaniel, docile and affectionate.

20. Small water spaniel, resembles the former.

21. Springer, used for hunting woodcocks.

22. Terrier, active and strong, used for destroying rats and mice.

23. Turnspit, formerly used in England for turning a spit.

24. Comforter, kept as a lap-dog.



THE DATE-TREE.

THIS is a species of palm, which produces the sweet fruit which is brought to us from Smyrna, and other ports in the Mediterranean, and which is well known under the name of *date*.

In the regions between Barbary and the Great Desert, the soil, which is of a sandy nature is so much parched by the intense heat of the sun's rays, that none of the corn plants will grow; and in the arid district, called the *land of dates*, the few vegetables that can be found are of the most dwarfish description. No plants arise to form the variety of food to which we are accustomed; and the natives of these districts live almost exclusively upon the fruit of the date-tree. A paste is made of this fruit by pressing it in large baskets. This paste is not used

for present supply, but is intended for a provision in case of a failure in the crops of dates, which sometimes occurs, owing to the ravages committed by locusts.

The date in its natural state forms the usual food; and the juice yielded by it when fresh contains so much nutriment as to render those who live upon it extremely fat. As, by the Moors, corpulence is esteemed an indispensable requisite of beauty, the ladies belonging to the families of distinction among them nourish themselves, during the season, solely with the fresh fruit, and by continuing this regimen during two or three months, they become of an enormous size!

The date-palm flourishes very generally on sandy soils in the hot countries of Asia

and Africa. Not always, however, is the soil that supports it barren as the one we have described. It is frequently found by streams, and as the tired traveller sees its foliage waving afar, he hastens towards it, hoping to find a stream of water. Sometimes its tall stem is surrounded by beautiful climbing plants, and the most brilliant flowers flourish beneath its shadow.

This palm frequently attains the height of sixty feet, and stands perfectly upright,

unlike, in this respect, some other species of palm, whose slight forms yield to the winds. It was to this tree that the Psalmist alluded when he said, "The righteous shall grow as the palm-tree,"—firm and unmoved by the shocks of temptation and the storms of adversity. The clusters of dates are sometimes five feet in length, and, when ripe, are of a bright gold color, over which the summit of the tree is crowned with a beautiful foliage.



LOGAN, A MINGO CHIEF.

THIS unfortunate chief, better known to the world by the eloquent and pathetic speech which he has left as a record of his misfortunes and sorrows, than by his exploits in war, was of the Mingo or Cayuga tribe. His father, Shikellimus, was a personal friend of the benevolent James Logan, the friend of William Penn, and the founder of the Loganian Library at Philadelphia. The name of the son was probably derived

from this person. During the war with the French, when the Indian confederates, under the guidance of Pontiac, threatened the north-western settlements with extermination, Logan refused to take up arms against the whites, to whom he was attached by the most friendly feelings, and exerted himself as a peace-maker. He became known, throughout all the neighboring tribes, as the white man's friend, and continued on

terms of the most perfect amity with all the western settlers till the year 1774, when his friendship was requited with a series of acts of such barbarous and wanton cruelty, as rendered him at once a most vindictive and implacable enemy to the whole civilized race. Few portions of the history of the red men afford events more tragical and affecting than the fate of the unhappy Logan.

In the month of April, 1774, while the Indian tribes on the northern frontier of Virginia were in a state of profound peace with their white neighbors, a rumor was circulated in that quarter that the savages had stolen the horses of some land-jobbers on the Ohio and Kenhawa. This report, although unsupported by any good evidence, seems to have created a general belief or suspicion that the Indians meditated hostilities against the settlements. In consequence of this impression, the land-jobbers collected in a body at Wheeling, where, in a few days, they received intelligence that a canoe with a few Indians was coming down the Ohio. A man, called Captain Michael Cresap, who seems to have acted as commander of the party, proposed to ascend the river and kill the Indians. There were at that time not the slightest indications of hostility on the part of the savages, except what could be gathered from the report above mentioned. Colonel Zane, one of the settlers, strongly objected to the proposal, representing to Cresap, very justly, that such an act, besides being an atrocious murder, which would disgrace forever all concerned in it, must inevitably bring on a war, in which torrents of innocent blood would be shed. Unfortunately, this reasonable and humane counsel did not prevail. Cresap, with a detachment of the party, went up the river. On their return, they were asked what had become of the Indians. They coolly replied that they had fallen overboard. On examining their canoe, it was found bloody and pierced with bullets. The fate of the unoffending natives was but too evident. This was the first blood shed in a war which brought the most terrible vengeance on the heads of the aggressors.

Having thus got a taste for blood, Cresap indulged his appetite for slaughter without scruple or restraint. The same evening, hearing of an encampment of Indians in the neighborhood below, he proceeded down the river, fell upon them while they were totally unsuspecting of any hostile design, and killed a number of them. In neither

of these cases did the whites pretend any provocation for their murders. Cresap's atrocities were soon imitated by another blood-thirsty wretch, named Daniel Greathouse. He collected a company of thirty-two men, and proceeded to the mouth of Yellow Creek, opposite which a large number of Indians had encamped. Greathouse concealed his men in an ambuscade, and crossed the river to learn the number of the savages. He went round among them, estimated their strength, and found that they were too numerous to be openly attacked. It happened that the Indians had heard of the murders committed by Cresap, and began to talk of revenge. Greathouse knew nothing of his danger till one of the squaws came to him and advised him to go home, for the Indians were drinking, and, being angry on account of the murder of their people down the river, they might do him a mischief.

He accordingly made the best of his way back, and consulted with his party how to ensnare the Indians by a stratagem, as an open assault was too hazardous. It was determined to invite a portion of them across the river, and get them intoxicated, by which means their whole body might be massacred, piecemeal. This was accordingly done; a number of the Indians, male and female, accepted the invitation of the whites to drink rum, crossed the river, and after being well plied with liquor, were all barbarously murdered in cold blood, with the exception of one little girl. The Indians in the camp heard the firing, and, as was expected, sent off two canoes with armed warriors. The whites lay in ambush on the bank of the river, and received them with a deadly fire, which killed the greater part, and forced the survivors to return. A great number of shots were exchanged across the stream, but none of the whites were killed or even wounded. Their conduct throughout this bloody affair was atrocious and brutal. They scalped their victims, one of whom was the very female who had given Greathouse the friendly caution when he visited the camp.

The whole of the family of Logan perished in these wanton massacres; in the last, were his brother and sister, the latter in a delicate situation, which aggravated the enormity of the crime, and augments our sympathy for the fate of the unfortunate victim. It will excite the wonder of no man, that Logan from this moment breathed nothing but vengeance against the treacherous and inhuman whites. A

general Indian war immediately followed. Logan was the foremost in leading his countrymen to the slaughter of their perfidious enemies. On the twelfth of July, with a party of only eight warriors, he attacked a settlement on the Muskingum, captured two prisoners, and carried them off. When they arrived at an Indian town, they delivered them to the inhabitants, who instantly prepared to put them to death in torture. Logan, however, in the heat of his vindictive feelings, displayed the humanity of his nature. He cut the cords of one of the prisoners who was about to be burnt at the stake, and saved his life. This man was afterwards adopted into an Indian family, and became Logan's scribe.

A chief, named Cornstalk, was the leader of the Indians in this war. Large bodies of warriors were collected, and they abandoned the usual mode of savage warfare, and, instead of making petty incursions upon the settlements, they resolved to meet the whites in the open field, with a strong army, and give them battle in their own way. This new scheme of military tactics, however, they had not the skill to follow up with success, and the contest was brought to a close much more speedily than would have been the case had the savages pursued their old method of hostilities. The whites, everywhere along the frontier, abandoned their settlements, and either fled from the scene of warfare, or took shelter in the forts. Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, ordered out the militia, and an army of three thousand men was equipped for the campaign. One half of this force, under the command of Colonel Lewis, marched toward the mouth of the Great Kenhawa, and the other division, under Dunmore, proceeded toward the Indian towns on the Ohio, with the design of destroying them in the absence of the warriors, who were drawn off by the approach of Lewis' army.

At Point Pleasant, on the Great Kenhawa, a sanguinary battle was fought on the 10th of October, 1774, between Lewis' army and the combined forces of the Shawanese, Mingoes, and Delawares. The two armies were about equal in numbers. The action commenced a little after sunrise, by a furious attack from the Indians, who drove in the advanced body of three hundred Virginians, with great slaughter. The main body coming up, the fight was renewed, and continued with the utmost obstinacy through the day. The Indians, with great military skill and calculation, had completely invested their opponents,

who were hemmed in upon a point of land at the junction of the Kenhawa and Ohio rivers, having the Indian line of battle in their front, and no possibility of a retreat in any direction. Cornstalk commanded the savage forces, and this tawny son of the forest distinguished himself, in all his manœuvres throughout the engagement, by the skill as well as the bravery of a consummate general. During the whole of the day, his stentorian voice was heard throughout the ranks of his enemies, vociferating, "*Be strong! be strong!*" After an incessant fire for twelve hours, darkness put an end to the conflict. The Virginians lost one hundred and forty killed and wounded; the loss of the Indians was about the same.

The Indians retreated the next day, and shortly afterward made proposals for peace. Logan, who had fought with great bravery throughout the war, refused to be a suppliant on the occasion. Cornstalk, with eight other chiefs, visited the camp of Lord Dunmore, to open negotiations, but Logan remained at his cabin in sullen seclusion, refusing to meet the whites. He was too distinguished a personage to be neglected in this important matter, and a messenger was sent to him to inquire whether the proposals for peace met his approbation. Under these circumstances he delivered the celebrated speech to which he owes his reputation. According to the best authenticated accounts, after shedding an abundance of tears for the loss of his friends, he addressed the messenger in the following language:

"I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed, and said, 'Logan is the friend of white man!' I had even thought to have lived with you but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not even sparing my women and children. There runs not now a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it; I have killed many; I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbor a thought that this is the joy of fear. Logan never felt

fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? — Not one!"

Every reader has been touched with the simple eloquence and pathos of this famous speech. Mr. Jefferson has indulged in no exaggeration in asserting, that neither Greek, Roman, nor modern oratory has any passage that surpasses it. Logan's affecting appeal to the white men will be longer

remembered than any other existing specimen of Indian rhetoric.

We are acquainted with few more particulars of the history of this unfortunate chief. It is mournful to state, that his great qualities became obscured, late in life, by indulgence in that vice which has been the most fatal scourge of his race — intemperance. He fell by assassination on a journey homeward from Detroit.



Ruins of Jericho as they now appear.

JERICHO.

JERICHO was situated twenty miles north-east of Jerusalem. It was taken by Joshua, who received orders from God to besiege it soon after his passage over Jordan. There was a most remarkable fulfilment of Joshua's denunciation against any who should rebuild it: "Cursed be the man before the Lord that riseth up and buildeth this city Jericho; he shall lay the foundations thereof in his first-born, and in his youngest son shall he set up the gate of it." This warning prevented the Jews from building on the spot where the ancient city had stood; but about five hundred years after, Hiel of Bethel undertook to rebuild it, and lost his eldest son in laying the foundations, and his youngest when he hung up the gates.

The modern village, called Eicha, is situated in the midst of a plain, and is very miserable and filthy, being composed of hovels made of four stone walls, covered with cornstalks and gravel. The few gar-

dens around seem to contain nothing but tobacco and cucumbers. About two miles from the village may be seen foundations of hewn stones and portions of walls, which render it probable that it was the site of the ancient city.

The Scriptures speak of Jericho as the city of palm-trees, and Josephus everywhere describes them as being very abundant and large. The region also produced honey, the cypress-tree, and the common fruits of the earth in great abundance. The sycamore-tree likewise flourished there.

Of all these productions, which so distinguished the plains of Jericho, few now remain. The groves of palms have all disappeared, and only one solitary palm-tree lingers in all the plain. The sycamore too is nowhere seen, and honey, if found at all, is very rare.

In the time of the crusades the sugarcane was cultivated at Jericho, but is now unknown there.



PATIENT GRISSEL.

THE story of Patient Grissel, or Griselda, has long been famous in almost every country of Europe, and is said to be founded on an actual occurrence, which took place seven or eight hundred years ago. It is to the following purport :—

At the foot of the Alps, in the western part of Piedmont, is a territory called Saluzzo, abounding in pleasant towns and castles. Walter, the marquis of this country, was a young man without a family, and being earnestly entreated by his people to take to himself a wife, at length announced his determination to do so. Every princess and great lady now entertained hopes of becoming the Marchioness of Saluzzo.

But the marquis gave his attention to none of these, and to the astonishment of everybody, made choice of a poor peasant's daughter, named Grissel. She was a modest, unassuming maiden, who spent her time in laboring for the support of her

father, now grown old, and unable to work. One day the marquis took his men out, on pretence of hunting, and, after traversing the woods for some time, he rode up to the cottage where Grissel and her father lived, and informed the old man that he had come to demand his daughter for a wife.

The old man was overwhelmed with astonishment, and Grissel was no less amazed at this strange and unexpected announcement. But the commands of the marquis were, of course, instantly obeyed. Grissel was adorned with robes of state, and conducted to the city, where, in the cathedral, the marriage ceremony was performed the same day. The affair became what is called a "nine days' wonder" to all the country, and everybody was astonished that the marquis should overlook all the great ladies in the land, to set his affections on a poor country girl.

Grissel lived very happily with her husband, for she was not proud of her sudden

elevation, and strove to please every one about her. When a daughter was born to her, she thought the marquis would love her still more. But so it happened that a strange whim now possessed this man. He determined to prove his wife, and make trial of her virtues, though she had never given him any cause for distrust. So, one day, he entered her chamber, pretending to be very angry, and told her that he must take her child away from her, as the people had resolved that none of her posterity should reign over them.

Grissel was overcome with grief at the news. However, like a dutiful and obedient wife, she submitted, and allowed her infant to be separated from her, with many tears. The marquis sent it away to a distant place, where it was taken care of; but his wife passed her days in secret sorrow, imagining that her child was put to death. When a second infant was born to her, she hoped she should be allowed to bring it up in her own family; but the marquis was desirous to put her to a further trial; so he demanded that one also. Poor Grissel, whose heart was bound up in her children, fell a weeping bitterly at this new misfortune. However, she complied, with meekness and humility, declaring that she submitted in everything to her lord's commands.

This infant was also sent away secretly, while the hapless mother believed it was cruelly put to death. Nevertheless, she made no complaint, but conducted herself as a faithful and affectionate wife. The unkindness of the marquis to her became known throughout the country, and all the people were filled with admiration at her constancy, patience, and dutiful affection.

The marquis, notwithstanding, was resolved to put her to another trial. So he commanded her one day, to take off her splendid robes, put on her old clothes, and go home to her father's, for she was to be his wife no longer. The patient Grissel immediately complied, without a murmur. She disrobed herself, resumed her coarse country dress, and took the way to her father's cottage. All the nobles exclaimed against the cruelty of her lord, and wondered at her patience and virtue. But she answered that these qualities were befitting a modest woman.

Not long after this, the Duchess of Bologna paid a visit to Saluzzo, and the marquis sent a troop to welcome her, and prepare an entertainment. In the train of the duchess were a gallant young man and a beautiful virgin, the latter of whom, it was

reported, the marquis designed to marry. But these were the children of patient Grissel, which had been privately brought up, without knowing their parentage.

The next morning after their arrival, the marquis sent for Grissel, and thus addressed her: "Grissel, the lady whom I am to marry is here, and a feast must be prepared for her. Now, because there is no one so well acquainted with the palace as yourself, I would have you undertake the arrangement of it, and wait upon the company."

"My honored lord," replied Grissel, with meek submission, "everything shall be done as you command." So, like a poor servant, she immediately set about the business of the house, performing all things with despatch and skilfulness, so that every one was amazed at her amiable and complying disposition, and murmured to see her put to such a trial.

The time for the entertainment being come, the fair virgin was introduced; and she looked so beautiful, that some of the spectators felt inclined not to blame the marquis for changing his wife. He addressed Grissel in the following manner: "You see the lady here whom I intend to marry. Are you content that I should thus dispose of myself?" "My lord," replied she, "when I became your wife, I devoted myself to obedience. If this match be designed for your good, I am satisfied. Only take care of one thing. Try not your new bride as you did your old wife, for she is young, and perhaps has not that patience which your poor Grissel possessed."

The marquis, who, till now, had worn a stern countenance, could contain himself no longer, but burst immediately into tears. "Thou wonder of women!" exclaimed he; "thou champion of true virtue! I have tried thee beyond all moderation, but I will never disquiet thee more. I will never have any wife but thee, thou most faithful spouse! Behold thine own son and daughter, whom I cruelly took from thine arms, to put thy constancy and patience to the trial!"

We need not attempt to describe the overwhelming joy of the mother at thus meeting with her lost children, nor the wonder and admiration of all the court at this unexpected turn of events. After the astonishment and joy on all hands were somewhat quieted, they all sat down to dinner, and the excellent Lady Grissel was now rendered completely happy, as she well deserved to be, for her great modesty and virtue.



YCHOALAY.

THIS individual attained to great celebrity among the Abipones, a tribe of Paraguay, famous for their skill in horsemanship, and the wars they maintained against the Spaniards. He was not a native of this tribe, but was born of what was called an honorable family among the tribe of the Riikahes. When a boy he was taught to manage a horse, and soon became an expert cavalier. A peace having been established between this tribe and the inhabitants of Santa Fe, Ychoalay, still a youth, impelled by curiosity and a roving disposition, visited that city, and after a time entered into the service of one of the inhabitants, called Benavides, whose name he took. He was assiduous in his attempts to learn the Spanish language; and, after a residence of some length at Santa Fe, he left that city for Chili, where he enjoyed more ample means of pursuing his studies. He appears to have formed a strong attachment to the Spaniards, and to have possessed sufficient sagacity to appreciate the superiority of their arts over the rude barbarism of the aborigines. He remained some time in Chili, and then established himself at Mendoza, on the estate of the person with whom he had travelled from Santa Fe. His employment was the cultivation of vines.

Although occupied with the peaceful pursuits of agriculture, Ychoalay, ever mindful of his origin from a tribe of warriors, affected the habits of a soldier, and never appeared

abroad in the fields without a spear. In the predatory attacks upon the inhabitants of that region, by the Charruas and Pampas, which not unfrequently happened, he soon distinguished himself by his courage; and while his companions were often robbed or murdered in the deserts of Paraguay, he always escaped by exertions of bravery and dexterity. Having remained some years at Mendoza, he became involved in a quarrel with the person whom he served, respecting the payment of his wages. This gave him a sudden disgust towards the Spaniards, and his resentment was inflamed into rage by being informed that one of them— for a reason which is not assigned— had attempted his life. Under feelings thus excited, he immediately left the Spaniards and joined the Abipones.

These Indians were remarkable for their determined and unflinching hostility to the Spaniards. Neither the armies nor the priests of the European invaders could control them. They could neither be subdued by arms nor conciliated by gifts. They zealously maintained their liberty— now fighting, now flying, as circumstances required— for two centuries. Perceiving the great superiority in war which the Spaniards possessed over them by means of their cavalry, they stole the horses from their settlements, and, in the course of fifty years, carried off, it is said, a hundred thousand of them. They soon became the most ad

mirable horsemen on the western continent; and though the number of their warriors did not exceed a thousand men, they kept the Spaniards in constant terror. They rode over craggy mountains, crossed wide and rapid streams, and traversed trackless deserts, full of rushes, thick woods, marshes, lakes, and swamps slippery with mud, regardless of all impediments. A distance of three hundred leagues was not an insurmountable obstacle when the hope of booty or the desire of annoying their enemies invited them upon an enterprise.

They were accustomed to rush to the assault at full gallop, brandishing a long spear, pointed at both ends, that if one should be blunted the other might be used. Their expertness in horsemanship was such that they could turn their animals round in circles, with the utmost swiftness, and retain them perfectly at command. While the horses were at full speed, they could suspend their bodies from their backs, and perform all the dexterous feats of an exhibitor at the circus. To prevent themselves from being reached by the shot of the enemy, they would hide entirely under the horse's belly. By these arts they wearied and baffled their pursuers, and seemed to make a mockery of the bullets hurled against them by the enemy. Their courage, activity, and inappeasable hatred of the Spaniards, were such as to render them the most formidable enemies encountered by that nation in all the regions watered by the La Plata. Their very name was sufficient to strike terror into a whole settlement. "The Abipones are coming!" was a cry that would throw the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres into such consternation that they would run up and down the city, nearly bereft of their senses, and utter the most dismal shrieks and exclamations, even though the enemy was not in sight. One of the Spanish commanders declared that if the Abipones were reduced to ten men, it would be necessary to maintain a guard upon the whole frontier.

At the time that Ychoalay joined this formidable tribe, they were harassing the territory of Cordova by daily inroads; and, being eager to pursue their hostilities, they welcomed his appearance among them with demonstrations of great satisfaction. Possessing a tall figure, a hardy frame, and a strength adequate to all the fatigues of predatory warfare, he soon distinguished himself among their boldest warriors, and was appointed the leader of the whole band. His shrewdness, activity and bravery were equalled only by his good fortune. The attacks

which he planned against the Spaniards were always successful. Amidst his numerous incursions, he was observed always to spare the territories of Santa Fe, where he passed a portion of his life; and he never took the lives of men devoted to religion, or permitted his soldiers to do so, although he had not embraced Christianity. He appears to have been above the current prejudices and superstitions of his tribe, never suffering any of the jugglers, common to that race, to associate with his men.

Although Ychoalay was the chief warrior of the Abipones, he was not the titular chief of the nation. The cacique Ychamenraikin exercised the nominal sovereignty. He had been celebrated for his warlike actions; but, during the latter part of his life, he fell into habits of indolence and sensuality, which rendered him a mere useless image of power. Ychoalay, by the force of his character and the fame of his exploits, obtained supreme authority in the tribe, and managed all its affairs. After a long period of warfare against the Spaniards, his old attachment for that people began to revive; the memory of former wrongs was weakened by the lapse of time, and he exerted himself to put an end to the strife. By his exertions a peace was concluded, and Ychoalay, with a body of Abipones, established themselves at the Spanish settlement of St. Jeronymo.

At this place a number of Jesuits had taken their station, for the purpose of converting the natives. Ychoalay assisted them in their labors with great zeal. He obliged his men to attend church and receive baptism. Being solicited by the Jesuits to profess Christianity himself, he begged for a respite till he had slain a rival, Oaherkaikin, who sought to supersede him in his command, and with whom he was then at war; but shortly afterwards, having concluded a truce with that chieftain, he became a convert. After his conversion, he totally abandoned his marauding course of life, and conducted himself in a manner to win the applause of his spiritual guides.

Ychoalay ever after faithfully adhered to the Spaniards, and took great pains to prevent the Abipones from violating the peace, often at the risk of his life. By his zeal in preserving and recovering the property of the Spaniards, he incurred the hatred of the other savage tribes; and many of his own countrymen regarded him with aversion, as a partisan of the Spaniards and an enemy to their own race. This caused him to utter the daily complaint, "My countrymen think me wicked, now, because I am good: for-

merly they called me good, because I was wicked!"

The history of the Jesuit missions in Paraguay is full of the exploits of Ychoalay, and the services rendered by him to the Spanish colonists. We find him constantly engaged in expeditions against hostile tribes of Indians who attacked the missionary sta-

tions and the frontier towns. The preservation of many of these places is ascribed solely to his exertions. He was evidently a man of superior abilities, and entitled to distinguished notice in the history of his own race. Of his death we have no account; but he appears to have lived to a good old age. He was still living in 1768.



THE METEOR MONKS.

THE Meteor or Meteora Monks are a community of Greek anchorites, who dwell in a number of convents on the summit of a cluster of lofty rocks, called, from their height, *Meteora*, and situated in Northern Greece, near the river Peneus.

The little town of Kalabaka is built directly at the foot of these rocky heights, which mount up over it in so bold a manner that they seem to hang in the air over the heads of the inhabitants. The monasteries were formerly twenty-four in number, but are now reduced to ten. Their situation is too extraordinary to be adequately described in language, or even by pictures. Some of them stand on the very summits of the rocky pinnacles, and others in caverns scooped out of the perpendicular sides of the rocks, so as to seem inaccessible by the foot of man.

The only access to these aerial dwellings is by means of ropes and ladders fixed to projecting points and edges of the rock. To enter some of these, the visitor must be put into a bag and hoisted up twice as high as the top of a common church spire.

These monasteries are of great antiquity; but the monks themselves are ignorant of the date of their foundation. They were probably built in times of great political convulsions, and afforded a secure retreat to the inmates at a period when the country around them was exposed to the ravages of invading armies and troops of banditti. A lonely traveller now sometimes pays a visit to these secluded abodes, where the monks continue their old life of solitary devotion, and seem almost entirely separated from the world below them.



CONSTANTINOPLE AND THE TURKS.

THIS city, the capital of the Turkish empire, is situated on the Bosphorus, a narrow channel which connects the Black Sea with the Sea of Marmora. It was anciently called Byzantium, but Constantine built it anew, and made it the seat of the Roman empire, in the year 328. From him it derived its name.

It fell into the hands of the Turks in 1458, and has since been their metropolis. The harbor is one of the finest in the world, and is capable of holding 1200 ships. On account of its curving shape, and the rich cargoes in the ships there, this harbor is called the Golden Horn.

As you approach Constantinople, it is extremely beautiful, but when you enter it, you find the streets dark, narrow and gloomy. Every Turkish house is a kind of prison, so arranged as to keep the women in a state of jealous confinement. The men generally live in the front part, they being the jailers of the houses. There are no windows looking into the streets.

It is impossible to conceive of a greater contrast than is presented by the streets of Constantinople in comparison with a European or American city. In the latter, all is life and bustle; the shops are furnished with rich goods, and multitudes of people, men and women, are passing to and fro. Vehicles of various kinds are also moving in all directions. In Constantinople it is quite otherwise. The houses, as we have said, are dark and gloomy; the streets are mostly unpaved; few women are seen, and no vehicles, save now and then a miserable cart drawn by oxen.

There are about 300 mosques in the city, 500 fountains, and 35 public libraries. The seraglio, or sultan's palace, is a city of itself. The harem, containing the 500 wives of the sultan, is fitted up with the most gorgeous magnificence.

The Turks spend a great part of their time in smoking at the public coffee houses. Here they seem to dream away their time in easy indolence. A modern traveller fur-

nishes us with the following characteristic description.

"Having just landed at Constantinople, and being totally unacquainted with the Turkish language, we entered the first café we encountered, with our interpreter. Two venerable-looking Turks were squatted on a sofa, smoking their long pipes, and exchanging, from time to time, words uttered with the greatest solemnity. The nobleness of their appearance and gravity of their deportment immediately attracted our attention; and our curiosity was so excited, that we asked our interpreter to tell us what was the subject of their conversation. He laughed at our request, but, after being several times pressed, said, smilingly,

"Well, well! I will give you a literal translation of their conversation. The older Turk, with the green turban, is an emir,

that is to say, a relation of the prophet; and the one opposite you is one of the magistry.

"Effendi," said the emir, 'fish has been very dear for several days.'

"You are right," replied the magistrate.

"Effendi," said the relation of the prophet, 'why has the fish been so dear lately?'

"I don't know exactly; perhaps the weather has been unfavorable.'

"Would you believe that I paid six piastres for a fish, which I could have purchased the day before for one?'

"And I, alas! gave seven.'

The rest of the dialogue was of a similar nature.

"Before we left Constantinople we had every reason to believe that our interpreter had given us a literal translation, although it astonished us at the time."



THE ZODIAC.

THE Zodiac consists of a broad belt in the heavens, among which the sun appears to make his annual circuit. The stars are arranged in groups, and the ancients, who were fond of astronomy, called these groups or constellations by particular names. One group they called *ursa major*, or great bear; one they called *Orion*; another, the crown; another, the dog; another, *Hercules*, &c.

In the month of March, the sun is said

to enter aries, that is, the group or constellation called aries, or the ram; in April it enters taurus, or the bull; in May, gemini, the twins; in June, cancer, the crab; in July, leo, the lion; in August, virgo, the virgin; in September, libra, the scales; in October, scorpio, the scorpion; in November, sagittarius, the archer; in December, capricorn, the goat; in January, aquarius, the water bearer; in February, pisces, the fishes.



THE INDIANS OF NOOTKA SOUND.

THE Indians inhabiting the country on Nootka Sound, and in the neighborhood of the mouth of Columbia river, are divided into many tribes, who differ but slightly in manners and general appearance. The tribes best known are the Clatsops and the Chinooks.

They are, in general, robust and well-proportioned; their faces are large and full; their cheeks high and prominent. They have broad, flat noses, thick lips, and small black eyes. But their strongest characteristic is caused by an extraordinary custom which they have of flattening the heads of the children when young.

Immediately after birth, the infant is placed in a sort of trough, lined with moss. A padding is laid on the forehead, where it is fastened with a piece of cedar bark and a cord. It is kept in this manner upwards of a year; and the appearance of the little pappoose, during this cruel imprisonment, is said to be frightful. Its little black eyes, forced out by the tightness of the bandage, resemble those of a mouse choked in a trap. Yet it is affirmed that this process causes no pain to the child.

When released from the trough, the head is quite flat, and never afterwards becomes round. The Indians esteem a flat head an essential point of beauty, and allege, in excuse for this custom, that all their slaves have round heads.

The dress of the Nootka Indians is composed either of the skin of a sea-otter, or of a sort of flax made by beating the bark of a tree into coarse filaments. In very cold weather, bear-skins are worn by way of cloaks. The women wear long dresses of matting.

They have in their houses huge idols, or images, carved into grotesque imitations of human faces and bodies. These misshaped figures always occupy a distinguished place in the dwelling. Yet the Indians have never been observed to pay them any marks of worship, or even of respect or attention. On the contrary, they are exposed to all the dirt which abounds in these abodes. When their children die, they put them in wooden boxes and hang them on the trees, where they remain a certain time before they are taken down and buried.

These Indians are very expert in the whale-fishery. They go to sea in large canoes, which hold eighteen or twenty men. Their harpoons are made of bone, attached to a wooden shaft twenty or thirty feet long, to which are fastened a number of seal-skins blown up like bladders; these keep the harpoon above water after the whale is struck. When he feels the smart of the first weapon, he instantly dives and carries the harpoon after him. The boats follow his wake, and, as he rises, the Indians continue to fix their weapons in his back, till he finds it impos-

sible for him to sink, from the number of floating buoys which are now made fast to his body.

The whale then drowns, and is towed to the shore with great noise and rejoicing. It

is immediately cut up; part is dedicated to the feast which concludes the day, and the remainder is divided among those who have shared in the dangers and glory of the exploit.



THE ROYAL OAK.

MANY of our readers doubtless remember the New England Primer, which had some queer little rhymes in it, among which were the following:

"The royal oak,
It was the tree
That saved his
Royal majesty."

Perhaps our young readers have not seen this book, and perhaps they have not all heard the story which gave rise to the preceding verse. We cannot show them the book, for we suspect a copy is not to be found, even at Burnham's, in Cornhill—that vast and interesting depository of books old and books new—but we can tell the story of the royal oak.

About two hundred years ago, Charles I. was King of England. He fancied that a king might rule his people pretty much as he pleased, and so he did many harsh and improper things. In consequence of this, he was tried by the Parliament, and finally beheaded.

His eldest son, named Charles, had fled to Holland, but he was now proclaimed king, under the title of Charles II. The people of Scotland took his part, and so he went there; and putting himself at the head of an army, marched into England.

He proceeded first to Carlisle, and then to the large town of Worcester, where his forces amounted to several thousand, Scotch and English. Oliver Cromwell was then at the head of the British government; he was a great commander, and knew well what to do. He came with his troops against Charles, and fell, pell-mell, upon the young king and his forces. There was no resisting the terrible shock. The combined forces fled or ran away, and King Charles himself scampered off on horseback, being hotly pursued.

About four thousand of the Scottish forces kept together, under General Leslie, and Charles joined them, and remained with

them till night. He then departed, and took refuge in a wood, at a place called Bascobel. Being very weary, he laid down, and had a good nap. He then met a friend who had also fled from the fight, and who had concealed himself in a thick, bushy oak tree. This man's name was Careless, but he took good care of Charles. He told his majesty that it was best for him to get up into the tree and hide there. So the king got up, his friend Careless giving him a boost. Charles was a waggish fellow, and we imagine he had a good laugh at this part of the adventure.

When the king had mounted, he pulled his friend after him, and there they both lay concealed all day. They saw several people go by, hunting for the king; but his majesty snuggled close, and they did not see

him. When it came night the two got down, and went to a poor man near by. He took the king and hid him in his barn, and then got him some bread and butter-milk. A king gets hungry as well as other people, and Charles relished his supper very much.

He remained in the barn two days and two nights, living upon bread and butter-milk. At length he made his escape, and after a variety of adventures reached France, where he remained till his return to England, in 1660, when he was welcomed as king by the nation.

This story will explain the old rhymes, and show the reason why the oak, to this day, is sometimes called the royal oak, in England.



DISCOVERY OF THE MINES OF POTOSI.

THERE are many silver mines in Potosi. They were first discovered by an Indian called Hualpa, who was scampering up the side of a mountain, after some wild animal. Finding that it had jumped up a steep place quicker than he could, and determining to follow it, he laid hold of a branch of a shrub, to assist him in climbing. But instead of assisting him, it broke in his hand, or rather it was torn up, root and all, out of the earth. He was, however, repaid for his disappointment, by the sight of something bright in the hole which the plant had come from. He soon discovered this to be a lump of silver, and he found several small bits sticking about the roots. These he picked up carefully, and home he went with great joy. Right glad was he to have found such a treasure.

He returned to the mine whenever he was in want of money; and by-and-by he became so much better in his circumstances, that his neighbors began to wonder at it. So at last he told one of his friends about his discovery, and showed him the place where the silver was to be found. They went on for some time very peaceably, but at length a disagreement arose, because Hualpa would not tell how he purified the silver. The Indian was so angry at this, that he went and told the whole story to a Spaniard. The mine being once found out, the Spaniards soon took possession of the whole, and the poor Indians got no more of the silver. This was in the year 1545.



THE BEAVER.

THIS animal is one of those creatures that is by no means permitted to live according to its taste and humor. It loves solitude and seclusion; it chooses as its haunts the far-off and unfrequented river-banks and lake-shores — and if permitted to have its way, would no doubt be glad never to see a human face. But it happens to have a very nice soft fur, and for this it is hunted and trapped, and carried to all the great markets in the four quarters of the globe. It is pursued from one retreat to another, and no matter how remote its abode, or how concealed its hiding place — wherever it may be — there comes the hunter and the trapper, eager and certain to secure his prey.

Some people might think it a great thing for one born and brought up in the wilds of the west, with nothing but a log cabin of mud and sticks to live in, to have his skin taken off and transported to the city of Pekin, and there to become a favorite with the little-footed wife of Taou Kwang, the celestial emperor of the Celestial Empire! Such has been the fate of many a beaver's hide; and however honorable and glorious it may seem, we suspect that the beavers, one and all, would be glad to be let alone, and to enjoy in quiet the humble station which nature assigned him.

The beaver has been so often described that we can say little about it that is new.

It is a gnawing animal, and its teeth constitute a chisel that surpasses that of the carpenter; for while the latter wears out, the former grows as fast as it is worn away. Such, indeed, is the admirable adaptation of the teeth of the beaver to his purposes, as to excite admiration. A learned writer, after examining this subject, and others of a similar kind, says — “It shows that, anterior to creation itself, the Maker must have known intimately every property of every substance, every law of every combination, and every principle of every science, mechanical, chemical or whatever else.” The same writer adds, that “the structure of the beaver's teeth gives us the models of some of our mechanical instruments, in their best forms.” Thus it appears that a careful study of even the beaver's teeth suggests the most interesting and important reflections.

The curious form and habits of the beaver have given rise to many extravagant tales: we shall endeavor to confine what we have to say, to the simple truth. This we hope will not be without its interest.

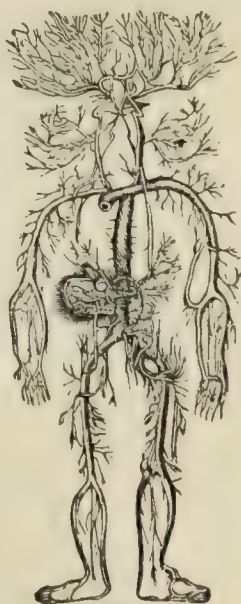
This animal is low and squat in his body; he has a waddling gait; his hind legs are wide apart, and he is knock-kneed. He is therefore neither a graceful nor a nimble walker — yet he makes up for this, inasmuch as he swims admirably, and while he swims is able to carry sticks and stones in

his fore paws. He has a blunt nose, a divided upper lip, and small, squinting eyes. Were it not for his beautiful coat of fur, the beaver could hardly be called a beauty.

The tail of the beaver has given rise to many strange stories. It is oval shaped, nearly half as large as the body of the animal, flattened above and below, and covered with a kind of horny scales. As he builds houses of sticks, stones, and mortar, his tail has been said to serve him as a trowel for plastering, a spade for digging, a hammer for pounding, and we know not what else. All this is sheer fiction, and the beaver's tail, divested of romance, is merely a rudder

to guide its owner's course in the water, and occasionally a sort of balance pole to help him along in walking on the land.

The beaver usually makes his house, in the winter, of sticks, stones, and mortar, in which he shows some skill and great industry. Sometimes several unite, and build a kind of village. They have one opening above through the ground, and one below in the water. The united labor of these animals sometimes excites admiration; but it must be admitted that the tales of their wonderful intelligence and ingenuity are exaggerations. The beaver is excelled in these respects by the common mole, and some other animals.



The arteries.



The veins.

INGENIOUS CONTRIVANCES OF NATURE.

THE attentive observer will constantly meet with objects which display wonderful ingenuity of contrivance on the part of the Creator, and, at the same time, attest his Wisdom and Power. In every department of nature, the mineral, vegetable, and animal, there are contrivances which no human art can rival. Man may make imitations, but he can do no more.

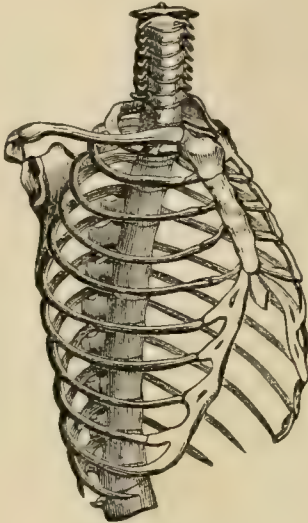
In order to render this skill of the Creator more palpable, let us examine one or two mechanical contrivances in the structure of animals. We will select as our first instance the human spine, or back-bone. This consists of twenty-four bones, joined

and compacted together in the most wonderful manner. It is so contrived that, while it is firm, and enables the body to support an erect position, it is, at the same time, flexible, so as to bend in all directions. No human art has ever been able to devise a chain that can perform these complicated offices. Here we see that in mere mechanical contrivance, the works of God defy competition from man.

But this is not all. The spine has still another office to perform. In the centre of this chain of twenty-four bones, and passing through them all, is a tube, containing the *spinal nerve*. This extends from the brain

through the back, and communicates with every part of the body by a thousand small pipes, which have the name of nerves.

Besides all this, the spine is to be so adjusted that the ribs may be fastened to it, as well as the legs and arms; and, finally, to this the various muscles, which enable the limbs and body to move, are to be fastened.

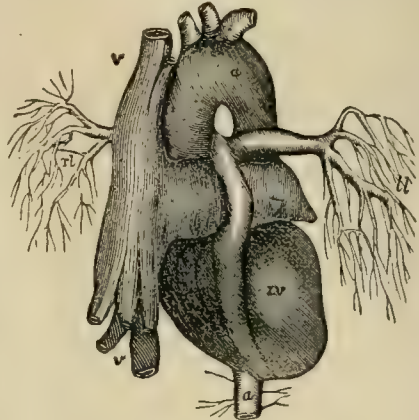


The human spine.

Now, suppose that an ingenious mechanic were to undertake to construct an artificial skeleton, in imitation of that which belongs to man; would it not be impossible for him to accomplish the task; and would he not be compelled to give up in despair? Let us consider that we only ask of the human architect an imitation, and that even this is beyond his ability. How great, then, must be the wisdom and power of that supreme Architect, who not only made, but designed and contrived his works, and not only designed and contrived them, but furnished the very materials from his own manufactory—the bones, the muscles, the nerves, and the fluids necessary for his purpose.

Let us take another illustration of the wisdom and power of God, as displayed in animal mechanism. It is the design of the Creator that the blood shall be distributed throughout the body, and that this shall be essential to life. The body is, therefore, provided with two systems of blood-vessels—arteries and veins; the first to carry the blood from the heart, and the latter to bring it back.

These tubes are wonderfully contrived and distributed over the body; and the blood which is to pass through them is furnished by means equally wonderful. But what machinery can be devised to receive the blood from the veins and force it through the arteries and throughout the system? The heart is destined to perform



The heart.

the work. This is a hollow muscle, in the centre of the body, surrounded by spiral fibres, running in both directions, the layers crossing and interlacing each other. By a contraction of these spiral fibres, the hollow muscle is compressed, and whatever fluid may be in it is squeezed out from the cavity within. By a relaxation of these spiral fibres, the cavities in the hollow muscle are prepared to admit any fluid that may be poured into it. Into these cavities the great trunks or pipes of the arteries and veins are inserted—the one to carry out the blood, and the other to return it.

Every time that the heart beats, a contraction of the spiral fibres takes place, and the blood is sent through the arteries by the force of the stroke, as water gushes through a syringe; and exactly at the same time an equal proportion is received from the veins. Thus at every pulse about two spoonfuls of blood are sent out from the human heart, through the arteries, and the same quantity is received through the veins. It is said that each ventricle of the heart will contain an ounce of blood. The heart contracts four thousand times in an hour, from which it appears that four thousand ounces, or two hundred and fifty pounds of blood pass through the heart every hour!



THE INDIAN VOLTAIRE.

THE original name of this famous chieftain was Shong-mun-e-cuth-e, or the Prairie Wolf. The title of the Ietan, by which he was chiefly known to the whites, was given for exploits which will be detailed in the course of our narrative. His father was named Big-Horse, and he had several brothers, two of whom, Blue-Eyes and Lodge-Pole, became celebrated warriors.

The tribe of which he was a native consists of the remnants of the Ottoes and Missouries, once numerous and warlike tribes, which roamed over the boundless west; but they are now so greatly reduced that the whole number of warriors, in both tribes, does not exceed two hundred. Being united by the closest friendship, they have cast their lots in union and act together as one people; and, small as is their aggregate, they have sustained themselves with such uniform bravery and good conduct as to command the respect of the tribes around them. They are more indebted to Ietan than to any other individual for the high reputation they have maintained, as he was not only one of the

boldest of their warriors, but he was distinguished for his knowledge and wisdom in peace. The tribe lives near the La Platte, thirty miles south-west of Council Bluffs. They have two mud villages, where they plant corn and pumpkins, which they leave to grow during the summer, while they go to the prairies, to hunt the buffaloes. At this period, they live in tents made of their buffalo robes. Upon their return they gather their harvest, and spend the winter in their wigwams.

When Colonel Long's party were encamped on the Upper Missouri, in 1819, they were visited by a party of Ottoes, among whom was Ietan, then a young but distinguished warrior. A grand dance was performed in honor of the American officers; in the course of which the leaders of the greatest repute among the Indians narrated their exploits. In his turn Ietan stepped forward and struck the flag-staff which had been erected, and around which the dancers moved. This ceremony is called *striking the post*; and such is the

respect paid to it, that whatever is spoken by the person who strikes may be relied upon as strictly true; and, indeed, it could not well be otherwise, for the speaker is surrounded by rival warriors, who would not fail to detect, and instantly expose, any exaggeration by which he should endeavor to swell his own comparative merits.

In recounting his martial deeds, Ietan said he had stolen horses seven or eight times from the Kansas; he had first struck the bodies of three of that nation, slain in battle. He had stolen horses from the Ietan nation, and had struck one of their dead. He had stolen horses from the Pawnees, and had struck the body of one Pawnee Loup. He had stolen horses several times from the Omahas, and once from the Puncas. He had struck the bodies of two Sioux. On a war-party, in company with the Pawnees, he had attacked some Spaniards, and penetrated into one of their camps. The Spaniards, excepting a man and a boy, fled, himself being at a distance before his party; he was shot at and missed by the man, whom he immediately shot down and struck.

On the occasion above alluded to, we are told, in the dance Ietan represented one who was in the habit of stealing horses. He carried a whip in his hand, as did a considerable number of the Indians, and around his neck were thrown several leathern thongs, for bridles and halters, the ends of which trailed on the ground behind him. After many preparatory manœuvres, he stooped down, and with his knife represented the act of cutting the hopples of the horses; he then rode his tomahawk as children ride their broomsticks, making such use of his whip as to indicate the necessity of rapid movement, lest his foes should overtake him.

While yet young, the Ietan was the leader of a party of some eight or ten warriors, against a small tribe called Ietans—probably a branch of the Snake or Black-foot Indians; they surprised a considerable party of the enemy, and, in the desperate fight which followed, Ietan killed seven warriors with his own hand. On returning to his camp, he displayed seven scalps, and several horses, the trophies of his skill and courage. From this period, he was ranked as one of the greatest warriors of his nation, and the name of *The Ietan* became his common appellation.

But the qualities of a warrior were not those by which he was most extensively known. The Indians are by no means in-

sensible to wit, and among themselves they frequently take much delight in pleasantry. But it is not often that a person is found among them who is distinguished for a playful fancy. This, however, was the case with Ietan. His humor broke out on all occasions. Wherever he went, he was the life of the party; and such at last was his established reputation as a wag, that, whenever he opened his mouth, the Indians around were prepared to laugh.

On one occasion a great number of warriors had assembled, to hold a council. They sat around in silence, no one presuming to speak. Decorum required, upon such an august occasion, the sages and warriors, renowned alike for their great virtues and their famous deeds, being present, that all should preserve the utmost gravity. Ietan was among the number; and a superficial observer might have fancied, on looking at his face, that he fully participated in the solemnity of the scene. A closer critic might have remarked, as beneath a mask, a quivering smile around his lip, indicating some merry thought about to burst forth upon the assembly. At last, preserving his grave exterior, he made some remark in a low tone, yet so as to be heard over the whole mass. In an instant the gravity of the council was disturbed; there was a general grunt, and then a laugh, which could not be repressed. Ietan had suggested some idea so humorous, that even the established laws of Indian good society were set at nought.

An instance of playfulness of fancy is afforded in the following story. He had been on a visit to Governor Clarke, the Intendant of Indian Affairs at St. Louis. As he was returning, he stopped at the little settlement of Liberty, about half way to Council Bluffs. Here he manifested a great desire to see the process of manufacturing whiskey, which he knew was carried on there. As the Indians had already made some attempts to procure this article, in which they had sacrificed large quantities of their corn, it was not thought prudent to show so sagacious a person as Ietan the whole process. He was, therefore, taken only into the room where the distillation was taking place. When he saw the coiling pipe, called the *worm*, and understood its use and operation, he remarked playfully,—“I see now why it is that the whiskey, when it gets into the head, makes the brain turn round so; it is because of the trick it gets in passing through the tube!”

Being once at Council Bluffs, with some of his Indian friends, he saw some rockets sent into the air by the soldiers. In talking with his companions upon the subject, he told them that the Great Spirit had made the whites superior to the Indians in two things,—in making fire-water and fire-powder; and in gratitude for these gifts, they sent up these streams of fire, so that he might light his pipe!

About the year 1822, Major O'Fallan, who had been stationed at Council Bluffs, attended a deputation of chiefs from several of the tribes, to Washington. Among them were warriors from the Kansas, Pawnees, Otoes, Gros Ventres, Mandans, Omahas, &c., amounting in all to about twenty. Of this party, Ietan was one. During the expedition, he was constantly exciting the mirth of his companions by his wit, and his humorous observations upon what they saw.

The chiefs were taken from Washington to Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. They took careful note of everything; they paced the decks of the ships, and measured the guns of the forts with strings; they also measured the size of some of the public buildings. They attempted to count the people of New York, and keep the record upon notched sticks!

On their return to their homes, these chiefs, with the exception of Ietan, gave an account of what they had seen. In every instance this was received with incredulity, and, in most cases, the result was fatal to the character of the chiefs for veracity. It has been a matter of policy for the leaders of the Indians to inculcate the belief that they were among the most sagacious and powerful of the nations of the earth. It is the pride, the conceit, thus established, that becomes the source of much of their courage and vigor of character. Let them become humbled by a knowledge of their comparative ignorance and weakness, and they would soon sink into listlessness and insignificance.

The fate of the Mandan chief was melancholy indeed. On his return, he told, without exaggeration, what he had seen. "The white people," said he, "have lodges, some of which are a hundred paces in length; they have canoes fifty paces in length, and of sufficient bulk to hold five hundred men. In their great cities the people are so numerous that you cannot number them; they seem as countless as the stars in the sky, or the straws on the prairie."

This announcement, so different from the current notions of the people at that time,

was received with universal disbelief. Some of them rose up and told the chief that it could not be true; that he had sought to deceive them; that he had spoken with a double tongue. In vain the chief protested that he spoke the truth; in vain did he appeal to the Great Spirit, in attestation of his veracity. "You have spoken with a false tongue!" was the universal cry.

However they may practise every species of deceit toward their enemies, truth toward each other is a cardinal virtue with the Indians. An attempt to practise a deception upon the tribe is held to be an unworthy degradation of the man, and a foul sin against Heaven. It is considered better that a man shall die, and put an end to sinning, than to live after he has defiled himself by falsehood. Proceeding upon these views, the Mandan savages were called out for the execution of the chief, whom they had pronounced a liar. "Sing your death-song, for you must die!" was the universal decree.

Seeing that it was vain to resist, and submitting to a decision which every Indian considers final, the chief, in the presence of the assembled tribe, began his death-song. This is a sort of dying confession, offered to the Great Spirit, but it usually contains as much of boasting as humility. "I am a great warrior," said the chief; "I have stolen many horses; I have taken many scalps from my enemies; I have struck many bodies of the dead, in the heat of battle. I am a great hunter. Who could ride over the prairie more swiftly than me? Whose arrow was more true than mine? Who has slain so many buffaloes as I have done? And who was wiser in council than the chief of the Mandans? Yet he must die, for he is condemned by his own people. I have spoken the truth, yet they say I am a liar! Thou, Great Spirit of the air—thou knowest all things; and thou knowest that I spoke truly. Yet I die content, for my people have so decreed. Great Father of the Indian family, smile upon me in the far land of spirits. Let me dwell forever in the rich prairie, far from the Black Feet, and the Snakes, and the Pawnees; let me feast upon the fattest of buffaloes; let there be no enemy to disturb my feast, or to break my slumbers; no prickly-pear to wound my feet. Let me be surrounded by willing squaws, who will arrange my tent, provide my moccasins, and dress my food."

Having sung his death-song, of which this is an imaginary though characteristic sketch—the chief declared that he was ready to die.

Several of the Indians had their rifles prepared; they fired, and he fell dead upon the earth. Thus it seems that among savages, as among civilized men, ignorance is ever bigoted; that it is an offence to know more than the mass; and to announce truth that conflicts with the established creed of society leads to condemnation. Galileo was persecuted for declaring that the earth had a revolving motion; and the Mandan chief was shot for asserting that the whites possessed ships one hundred and fifty feet in length!

The fate of the Great Bear, a chief of the Pawnees, who had accompanied the party to Washington, and who indiscreetly disclosed the truth on his return, was hardly less severe. He was degraded from his rank as a warrior, and made to hold a station among the squaws—a mark of the utmost reprobation. One of our officers, belonging to the station at Council Bluffs, happening to be at the Pawnee village, saw the Great Bear in his state of humiliation. He was covered with filth; his neglected beard was grown long upon his face, and his head was covered with ashes. When the warriors assembled in council, he took his place without the circle of chiefs, among the boys.

Ietan was present on this occasion. During the session of the council, the Great Bear left the boys, and, after a short space, he returned in the full dress of a warrior. He was a man of noble form, and now, in his war gear, had an imposing appearance. He wore around his neck the medals he had received at Washington, and held in his hand a roll, consisting of several certificates he had received from different Indian agents of the United States. He proceeded with a lofty air to the centre of the council, and cast a haughty look upon the grave circle of smoking warriors and sages. He then began an address, in which he set forth his deeds as a hunter and a warrior. He appealed to the assembled chiefs, in attestation of the truth of what he said. "But I am now degraded," said he, "to the level of a squaw; the Great Bear, the renowned warrior, the fear of his enemies, and the pride of the Pawnees, is now an object of contempt! In the assembly of the chiefs, I am obliged to take my place in the outer circle, with the boys! And why is this? Because I told my people what I had seen in the land of the white men. In vain have I declared my veracity; in vain have I appealed to the Great Spirit, to attest my innocence. But there is now here a

great warrior and a great chief of the Otoes. Who has not heard of Shongmunecuthe, the Ietan? He is here. I appeal to him. He was with me in the cities of the white men. He can tell you whether I spoke with a false tongue. Speak, Shongmunecuthe! I told my people that the white men had canoes fifty paces in length, and that some of their lodges were two hundred paces in length. I said that the white men were numerous as the stars. Say, chief of the Otoes, is the Great Bear a liar?"

The scene produced a strong excitement. Every eye was bent upon Ietan, who now arose, and replied to the appeal thus made. But it seems that generosity was not among the virtues of the Prairie Wolf. He knew the Indian character well, and he had been careful not to jeopard his reputation by telling the Indians what they would not readily believe. In speaking of what he had seen among the white people, he had always used general terms. He now replied in the same manner. "The whites," said he, "have some pretty large lodges, and large canoes, and their people are numerous." The effect of his speech was unfavorable to the Great Bear. The cautious manner in which the renowned Ietan had spoken, satisfied the assembly that the Pawnee chief had been guilty of misrepresentation. The latter saw the effect produced, and, with a dejected air, he retired from the council. Thus it appears, that, by his sagacity, Ietan preserved his character and standing with the Indians; knowing their prejudices, he took care not to shock them by his statements, which would only prove injurious to himself; while the less prudent chiefs fell victims to their frankness.

An extraordinary evidence of the confidence reposed in him by his tribe was afforded a few years before Ietan's death. Some of the white traders came to the village of the Otoes, and, in order to bribe the chiefs to use their influence with the Indians to part with their furs on easy terms, presented them with a keg of whiskey. They therefore prepared for a debauch—a business upon which they usually enter with due calculation. The women, foreseeing what would follow, took care to put the knives and other weapons of the savages beyond their reach.

In the height of their revel, Ietan and his brother, Lodge-Pole, fell into a dispute, which ended in a quarrel. They grappled, and Ietan was thrown to the ground. During the violent scuffle which ensued, Lodge-Pole bit off his brother's nose. Both

parties were too much intoxicated to notice what had happened, but the next day, when Ietan came to his senses, and discovered the mutilation, he seized his rifle, went straight to his brother's lodge, and shot him dead. Knowing that he had forfeited his life, he left the village and proceeded to Council Bluffs. He was well known by the officers, who sought in vain to comfort him. He cared little, indeed, for his brother's death, or his own exile; but he seemed to feel a peculiar degree of humiliation on account of the wound upon his nose. He was not a little relieved when the surgeon found means to patch it up, assuring him that the scar would be scarcely visible.

The chief had been absent but a few days, when a "crying deputation," as it is called, came from the tribe, beseeching Ietan to return. It consisted of the principal men of the tribe; they were loaded with presents of horses, cloths, and furs; and as they came into the presence of their chief, they wept aloud, in token of their sorrow. Ietan promised to take the subject into consideration. This he did, and, after a few weeks, he returned. He was received with joy by the people; his crime was overlooked; and from that time he was the war-chief of the tribe.

He continued to be their leader for a number of years; his reputation, not only as a warrior, but as a man of sagacity and wisdom, was greatly extended, and he was regarded as one of the great men of the day. His fame for wit was spread far and wide, and his society was much sought on account of his powers of amusement. The white people were accustomed to call him the *Indian Voltaire*.

The death of this renowned chief was inglorious. During his absence, about the year 1834, one of his young wives, being smitten with affection for one of the youthful dandies of the tribe, forgot her duty, and went to live with her new lover. When Ietan was about to return, the young Indian began to dread the wrath of the chief. Accordingly, being joined by five or six of his companions, he fled to the woods. Ietan returned, and learning what had happened, pursued the seducer and his party. They lay in ambush, and as the chief approached they rose and fired a volley upon him. Though desperately wounded, he sprung upon them like a tiger, and slew two of them with his own hand. In the midst of the conflict, he received a ball in his breast, and fell shouting in triumph for the vengeance he had inflicted upon his enemy.



THE PALISADGES.

SOME of the finest scenery in this country is found on the banks of the Hudson river; but the *Palisadoes*, as they are called, are not merely beautiful — they are indeed one of

the curiosities of nature. They consist of steep rocks, formed like a wall, and constituting the western bank of the river, from 12 to 20 miles above the city of New York.

As you pass by in the steamboat, the Palisades cannot fail to excite your wonder. Though the rocks are so high as to seem almost like mountains, yet they are often so regular as to look like works of art.

You can hardly persuade yourself, indeed, that they are not cut by the hand of man. If, however, you go upon these rocks, you will see that they are too vast a work for any other than an Almighty hand.



QUETZALCOATL.

THE earliest traditions of the American Indians present us the names of certain remarkable personages, to whom they referred the origin of their civilization. Their histories are all more or less obscured by fable, and a sceptical inquirer might assign their existence to the regions of mythology. While the inhabitants of the western continent are still in their original state of barbarism, these mysterious persons arise among them, and, by the exercise of some unknown influence, acquire such a degree of power over their minds, as to turn them from the savage state, and implant in their communities the germ of civilized life. These important events are not always detailed with distinctness, and the real facts

are often embellished with accounts that are allied to the marvellous. Men with beards, and with clearer complexions than the rest of the people, make their appearance among the mountains of Anahuac, on the plain of Cundinamarca, and in the elevated regions of Cuzco, without any indications of the place of their birth. These strange beings, bearing the title of high priests, of legislators, and of the friends of peace and the arts, are received with veneration by the natives, who submit implicitly to their authority. Manco Capac is the lawgiver of Peru. Bochica presents himself on the high plateaus of Bogota, where he acquires authority among the Muyscas; but of this individual we have hardly any

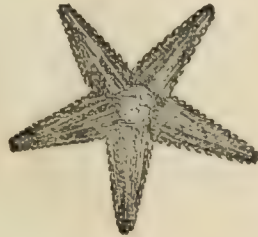
distinct account, beyond the simple fact, that he came from the savannas that extend along the east of the great mountain ridge of the Cordilleras.

Quetzalcoatl, who performs a similar part among the tribes which afterward constituted the Mexican empire, is said to have appeared first at Panuco, on the shore of the Gulf of Mexico, clothed in a black sacerdotal robe. He was a white and bearded man, and became high priest and chief magistrate of Tula. He established a religious sect, the members of which, like the fanatics of Hindostan, inflicted on themselves the most cruel penances. He introduced the custom of boring the lips and ears, and of lacerating and mangling the body. He led the life of a hermit, and his chosen place of retirement was the volcano of Catzitepetl, where he walked barefooted on the prickly leaves of the *agave*. The reign of Quetzalcoatl was the golden age of the people of Anahuac. All the classic fables of the Saturnian times are imitated in the descriptions of this period. Men and animals lived in peace; the earth, unassisted by the labor of man, brought forth the most fruitful harvests, and the air was filled with multitudes of birds, admirable both for the melody of their songs and the magnificence of their plumage. But this delightful state of things was not of long duration. The great spirit, Tezcatlipoca, offered Quetzalcoatl a cup of drink, which rendered him immortal, but at the same time inspired him with a desire for roaming. He had heard of a distant country, called Tlapallan, and set out in search of it. With his departure all things began to deteriorate.

Quetzalcoatl directed his journey at first to the south-east, and then easterly, though we are not informed of the locality of the territory of Tlapallan. In passing through the country of Cholula, he was solicited by the inhabitants to remain among them, and he became their ruler. He stayed twenty years in this quarter, taught the people various arts, among others that of casting metals, instituted fasts, and regulated the intercalations of the Toltec year. He preached peace to man, and permitted no other offerings to the Deity than the first fruits of the harvest. After leaving Cholula he passed on to the mouth of the river Goasacoalco, in the bay of Campeachy, where he disappeared, having promised the Cholulans that he would return in a short time and confirm their happiness. Quetzalcoatl was afterwards deified, and the great pyra-

mid of Cholula had an altar on its summit dedicated to him as god of the air.

The name Quetzalcoatl signifies, in the Mexican language, "Feathered Serpent." The Mexican pictures and statues represent him as tall and stout, with a fair complexion, open forehead, large eyes, long black hair, and thick beard. His dress is commonly a long robe. As in the history of the demigods and heroes of Greece, the facts of his life are overlaid by mythological fictions; yet there is no good reason to doubt his real existence. A Spanish writer has maintained that he was no other than the apostle Saint Thomas, who preached Christianity in India, and from thence might have passed to America. It is remarkable that the image of the cross is plainly discernible in the sculptures of Palenque; and persons, apparently priests, are represented as making offerings to this symbol of Christianity. Yet the mission of Saint Thomas to America must be regarded as the mere suggestion of an enthusiastic fancy.



THE STAR-FISH.

DID you ever stand on the rocky shore of the sea and notice the star-fishes that come floating along? Many of them appear like pieces of jelly, drifting with the tide, without life, and without the power of motion. But they are all capable of moving from place to place, and shoot out their arms in every direction. Some of them have five rays, as in the picture; this kind are called *Five-Fingered Jack*. These star-fishes have ravenous appetites, and are very expert in gratifying them. They grasp prawns, shrimps, worms, and insects that come in their way; and, soft and pulpy as they seem, woe to the poor creature they get hold of! One thing is very curious, and that is, that they devour shells of considerable size, which are crushed to pieces in their stomachs!

Not only are the star-fishes of different forms, but they are of different hues also: some are striped, some are red, and some green. In fine weather, they are seen in the water, spread out, fishing for their meal. Some have long fibrous arms, which stretch forth to a distance, and with them they pull in their prey. If you take one of those creatures and put him on the shore, he becomes a mass of offensive liquid, like water, in about twenty-four hours.

This picture represents one of those curious creatures, called *Medusæ*. The kinds, as we have said, are numerous, and in some seas, they are found in myriads. The most

curious property of these strange fishes is, that they give out a light at night, which often makes the waves very brilliant. This



Medusa.

light is called *phosphoric*, and may be often noticed in the track of a vessel, and almost seeming as if the water were on fire.



THE BHEELS.

THE Bheels, or Bils, are a peculiar race of people in Hindostan, living in the provinces of Gujerat and Malwa. They are believed to be the remnant of an aboriginal tribe, who were driven into the mountainous parts of the country, at a very early period of history, by the Brahmins.

The Bheels have a great aversion to regular industry, and live a loose sort of life, plundering their neighbors, or serving as mercenaries in the armies of such of the Hindoo chiefs as choose to hire them. A few of them are cavalry, but the greater part fight on foot, armed only with bows, and almost naked. Their dwellings are of the rudest kind, and they are in other respects barbarians; yet they are generally

regarded as a nobler and manlier race than any of the Hindoo tribes which surround them. They are very expert in the use of the bow, which in their hands is a most formidable weapon. They seldom or never attack the Europeans in their vicinity, but receive in a friendly manner such Christian travellers as visit their country. Their Hindoo visitors are treated with less hospitality. Many attempts have been made to civilize the Bheels, and to wean them from their wild and lawless way of life, but thus far without success. They profess to be of the Hindoo religion, but, from their ignorance, they are by no means exact observers of the Brahminical rites.



THE ALPS.

THE Alps are the highest mountains in Europe. The tallest peak is called Mount Blanc. Its top is nearly 16,000 feet, or about three miles, above the level of the sea. This is in Switzerland, and if you ever visit that country you will be delighted and astonished by the scenery you will behold.

Mount Blanc may be seen at the distance of nearly two hundred miles; it then appears like a white, bluish cloud, just visible above the horizon. You would not imagine it to be a mountain unless some one were to point it out, and assure you of the fact. From the city of Geneva, a distance of forty miles, this mountain appears like a lofty pyramid of snow piled up to the sky.

Switzerland is every way a remarkable country. It has some of the most beautiful lakes in the world, and they are still more beautiful because they are surrounded by such wild scenery — lofty rocks, steep-ling precipices and mountains, whose tops seem to mingle with the clouds. There are deep, quiet valleys, also, checkered with green meadows, and rich pastures, and golden harvests, in their season. Above these, and seeming almost to hang over them, are mountain-peaks, covered with the everlasting snow.

It might seem that such a wild and rugged country as Switzerland could hardly be inhabited; but it has a considerable population. There are not only large cities, but many villages; and houses are scattered, here and there, over the country, even upon the shaggy sides of the mountains, on the verge of precipices, and along the edge of cliffs, where you would imagine the wild deer alone could find a footing.

Among the mountains of Switzerland, there is a species of wild goat called *chamois*. It is about the size of our common goat. It dwells in the higher parts of the mountains, even where the earth and rocks are covered with snow and ice. It feeds upon moss and the stunted shrubs and grasses that flourish in those dreary regions. Here it may be seen fearlessly leaping from rock to rock, while chasms a thousand feet in depth are yawning at its feet.

The pursuit of these swift-footed mountaineers is dangerous sport, but the Swiss are passionately fond of it. They will go forth in the morning, and spend the whole day in climbing up the mountains, in fording rivers, scrambling over precipices, and traversing ridges, content and even happy if they have secured a single *chamois* in

the chase. They seem to think no toil too severe, no danger too great, for this fascinating occupation.

A great many curious adventures have happened to the chamois hunters. We shall give you an account of one of these, saying, however, before we proceed, that if it be a tale of fancy, it is still characteristic of the country.

Some years ago, there was a young man by the name of Stephen Borlis, who lived in the valley of Chamouni. Here is a little village, situated eight thousand feet above the level of the sea, and at no great distance from the top of Mount Blanc. It is a favorite stopping place for travellers who come to visit Mount Blanc, and who usually stay a short time to enjoy the beautiful scenery of this valley.

Our story begins at a period when Stephen had reached his eighteenth year. He had become greatly attached to chamois hunting, and was famous for his daring and dexterity in this perilous amusement. He was, therefore, a sort of hero in the little village of Chamouni. It is necessary to state, that there was a maiden in this village, as much renowned for her beauty as Stephen was for success in chamois hunting. She was now about sixteen, and bore the name of Marsaline.

Now the beauty of this young lady had drawn around her a great many lovers, and it was said that she was sorely puzzled to choose between them. If she had any preference, it seemed to be for Stephen Borlis; but though the youth pressed his suit warmly, the maiden could never be persuaded to decide in his favor. At length she adopted a strange resolution. There was a famous chamois in the mountains, which had long baffled the skill of the hunters; it was said to be so swift of foot as to seem to fly rather than run. It was extremely wild, always perceiving the approach of the hunter from afar, either by its penetrating sight or its acute scent. It would leap across the most fearful chasms, and bound along the icy sides of the mountains in a manner so wonderful, that many people believed the white goat possessed more than earthly powers, and was, in fact, a sort of wizard.

Well, the decision of Marsaline was this. She resolved to marry the hunter who should succeed in taking the white chamois; if no one could accomplish this feat, she declared her resolution to remain a maiden. In her heart she believed that Stephen Borlis would be the successful hunter, and thus win her hand; and it was, perhaps, part of her

scheme to incite him to an achievement which would increase his fame, in the glory of which she would have a share.

A particular day was fixed for the hunt, and about twenty youths set out for the chase. Stephen Borlis was up in the mountains at the first break of day. It was autumn; and though the morning was clear, the air was keen as winter. The route of the youth led him over rocky cliffs, masses of ice, rising like castles in the air, and fields of snow, of dazzling whiteness. As the sun rose, he was on the top of Mount Blanc. What an amazing prospect spread around him! All Switzerland was before him, seeming like a sea of mountains and valleys. He could look down upon numerous towns and villages—could trace the course of rivers, and observe numerous lakes, seeming like mirrors encircled by hills and forests. How gloriously the sun rose on this scene! And how did the young man's heart swell with exultation as he gazed upon it!

Having remained here some time, the youth began to descend the mountains. The early morning had past, and he had not seen the object of his pursuit. A sort of despondence crept over him. And the idea that some person more fortunate than himself might win the hand of the fair Marsaline, occupied him to such a degree that he became inattentive, and was on the point of sliding into one of those enormous chasms, or cracks, which are found in the snow and ice on the mountains.

He recovered himself, however; but while he was yet standing on the edge of the crevice, he heard a sort of whistling and the clatter of feet. Turning in the direction of these sounds, he perceived the white chamois flying along the side of the mountain. The distance was great; but instantly bringing his rifle to his shoulder, he fired. He saw the animal first leap into the air, and then fall into the valley below; but the recoil of Stephen's gun caused his feet to slip, and he was instantly borne forward upon the smooth surface of the snow. For a few moments, he preserved his presence of mind; but soon he became insensible from the rapidity of his descent, and was at last plunged into an immense bed of snow which had collected between the mountains.

When his senses returned, the youth found himself in a comfortable room, and a woman was at his bedside watching over him. On making inquiries, he learned, that he had broken through the snow which had fallen from the mountains and buried a farm-house beneath it. Here the people

were imprisoned for the winter, but as such events were not uncommon, they were well provided against it. Young Borlis soon recovered from the effects of his fall, and was eager to depart; but this was impossible. He was obliged to wait four long months before he could return to Chamouni.

When at last he arrived there, he found the whole village in a great state of excitement. When he inquired the cause of this, he found that the fair Marsaline was going to be married that very day. "And who is she to marry?" said he. "Why, have n't you heard? To Arthur Moleen, the hunchback."

"And why to him?"

"Because he killed the *white chamois*!"

The young man stayed to hear no more; the bells were already ringing; the villagers had gathered into the church. He rushed to the place — the ceremony was begun — the lovely bride and her deformed partner were kneeling at the altar. The sudden

appearance of young Borlis struck the assembly with amazement; they had all imagined him dead, for a rumor had gone forth that he had been dashed in pieces in falling over a precipice. But no one seemed so much affected as the intended bridegroom; he turned pale as ashes, and his teeth chattered as if he had been seized with ague. Stephen soon broke the silence. He told his story to the assembly, and the craven Moleen confessed that he had practised an imposition. He chanced to be near when Borlis shot the white chamois; he saw him fall, and supposing him dead, laid the game over his shoulder, and returned to Chamouni. He there boasted of his achievement, and claimed the hand of Marsaline as his reward. He now begged ten thousand pardons; and young Borlis, taking his place at the altar by the side of the maiden, clasped her hand in his, and they were speedily united in the bands of wedlock!

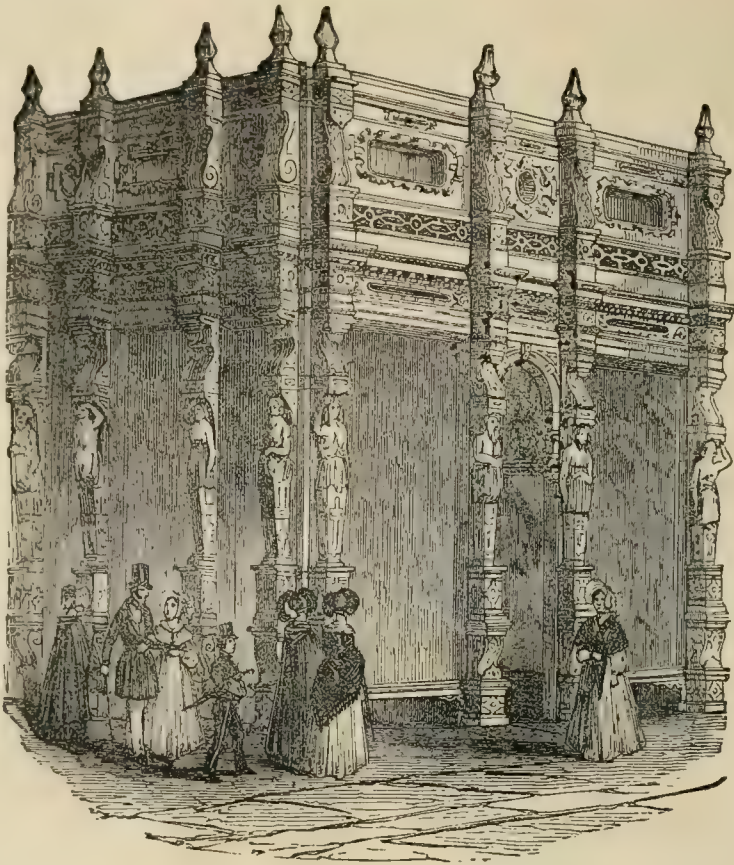


THE MONKEY BEGGAR.

Most of our readers would not understand this picture, without explanation. In the great cities of Europe, there are many people who are very poor, and these resort to a variety of means to get a living. Some pick up old bits of rags, papers, bones, etc., and sell them; some go about vending pins, needles, and other trifles; some sit on the sidewalks and play upon violins; some carry about marmots and monkeys, and some

sweep the cross-walks in the streets, begging of the passers-by for a penny or two.

The picture represents a man who has put a jacket on a monkey, and taught him to stand on his hind legs, and appear to take a broom and sweep the streets, while his master stands by and begs for a little money. Such arts as these are often adopted by the beggars in Paris.



SHOPS IN LONDON.

THE shops in London are among the finest in the world. We do not speak now of the arcades and bazaars, where a whole village of shop-keepers are associated together under one vast roof, but of single shops situated upon the streets.

We give a picture above, of one of the shops of Ludgate Hill, and there are others of equal magnificence in other parts of London. The rooms in these establishments are of great extent, and fitted up in the most elegant and imposing style. At the front, are windows with plates of glass eight or ten feet in length, and of proportional width; the sashes are of polished brass. The doors are of the richest mahogany, and the entrance is altogether in the most sumptuous style.

Within, the shop presents a scene like fairy land. Splendid mirrors are so arranged as to multiply the columns of the room, and throw a long vista before the eye

of the beholder; at the same time, the richest and most gorgeous of merchandises are displayed on all sides, so as to strike the eye, and add to the effect produced by the mirrors. When the shop is filled with well-dressed ladies, as is usually the case from ten in the morning till three in the afternoon, there is a bewildering splendor about the scene, and one might almost fancy, that a species of fascination, calculated to make the customer an easy prey to the shopkeeper, is at once the object and the end of these devices.

The wealth displayed in the shops of London is suitable to the metropolis of the world. In one you see heaps of silks, of the richest and most splendid patterns; and if you pause to note their infinite variety, you become at last surfeited and sickened with mere luxury. In another shop you see every species of jewelry—and rubies, diamonds, emeralds, sapphires, cameos, and

antaglios, are so abundant, that you pass on, content that they are not yours.

You come to a window, where gold and silver plate are stretched out before you in such profusion, that they almost look cheap and vulgar! In one window is a display of cutlery, so bright and so fancifully arranged, that it looks like the gaudy figures in a kaleidoscope; in another, there is such an assemblage of furs, that you draw a long breath, with a smothering sensation, just to look at it.

Thus, as you pass on, one after another of these shops presents you with its treasures, — and all attended by every ingenious device, every suggestion of busy fancy, to set them off to the best advantage. There is a perpetual strife between the shopkeepers, to outshine each other: each one is desirous

of obtaining notoriety, of catching the public eye, of securing a run of custom — in short, of being in the fashion and making a fortune, of course.

Regent street, at night, seems like an illuminated city. The lights in the shop windows, arranged to display the goods, are exceedingly brilliant; yet they are generally hidden from the sight, while they throw the whole flood of their blaze upon the merchandise. The effect is truly beautiful, — and if any one desires to see the shops of London to the greatest advantage, let them visit Regent street in the evening. And one thing more — if a person wishes to save his money let him defer buying till he has been in London a month; by that time, he is likely to be so surfeited with splendor, as to feel weary of it.



The boys of London on Guy Fawkes' day.

GUY FAWKES.

Guy Fawkes' day, or the anniversary of the gunpowder plot, is celebrated in England, on the 5th of November, on the following account:

The Roman Catholics of England had been treated with considerable severity during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, but when she was succeeded on the throne by James the First, they hoped to see better times, and even had expectations that the king, whose mother had been a Catholic, would restore that religion to its supremacy in England. But in these hopes they were disappointed. James avowed himself a strict Protestant, and this so enraged the Catholics, that a number of the more zealous among them formed a plot to destroy the king and the Parliament at a single blow. For this purpose they hired the rooms in the basement story of the Parliament house, at London, which had been used for the purpose of storing wood, coals, and bulky materials. Then they deposited in the vaults, directly

under the hall of Parliament, a large number of barrels of gunpowder, and covered them up with fagots and billets of wood, to avoid suspicion.

Guy Fawkes was the person selected to watch the cellar and fire the powder when all was ready. The time was fixed for the 5th of November, 1605, when the Parliament was to meet, and the king was to attend in person, to open the session. One of the conspirators, however, being desirous of saving Lord Monteagle, wrote him an anonymous letter, ten days before the time, informing him that "a terrible blow" was about to fall upon the Parliament, and yet that they "should not see who hurt them." He therefore warned him to keep away from the meeting of Parliament, and to burn the letter as soon as he had read it.

Lord Monteagle showed this letter to some persons of his acquaintance, and it was laid before the king in council. All agreed that it denoted some danger by means

of gun powder. In order to make the discovery sure, they decided to keep quiet about the matter till the evening before the assembling of Parliament, and then to search the vaults under the house. Accordingly, on the 4th of November, at midnight, the place was visited, and a man in a cloak and boots was found at the door, who proved to be Guy Fawkes. On removing the wood-pile, thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were discovered. Fawkes was then searched, and a dark-lantern, a tinder-box, and a bunch of matches, were found concealed under his cloak. Finding it useless to deny the plot, he at once confessed that his design was to blow up the king and Parliament, and he manifested great sorrow at being prevented, saying it was the devil, and no one else, that had made the discovery. He boldly asserted, that if he had not been arrested so quickly, he would have blown up those who seized him and himself together. Fawkes was afterwards put to death, with several others of the conspirators, who failed to make their escape.

The "gunpowder treason day" has been kept in England from that time to the present. On these occasions the boys assemble and carry about a "Guy" through the streets. This is a stuffed image, representing Guy Fawkes with a lantern and bunch of matches. The boys hurrah, and sing songs like this :

"Please to remember the fifth of November,
Gunpowder treason and plot!" etc., etc.

Sometimes two parties meet in the street, each with their own Guy; they then have a regular squabble and fight, just for the entertainment of it; each party attempting to capture the other's Guy.

The celebration of this festival was one of the many old English customs transplanted hither by the Puritan settlers of New England. It was called *Pope's day* in this country, and seems to have been kept up with all the grotesque and noisy jollity of the London "Guy" frolics. The latest instance of the kind which we find on record, was at Newburyport, in 1775. It is described in the following terms in Coffin's history of that town :

"This year the celebration went off with a great flourish. In the day-time companies of little boys might be seen in various parts of the town, with their little popes dressed up in the most grotesque and fan-

tastic manner, which they carried about, some on boards and some on little carriages, for their own and others' amusement. But the great exhibition was reserved for the night, in which young men as well as boys participated.

"They first constructed a huge vehicle, varying at times from twenty to forty feet long, eight or ten wide, and five or six high, from the lower to the upper platform, on the front of which they erected a paper lantern, capacious enough to hold, in addition to the lights, five or six persons. Behind that, as large as life, sat the mimic pope and several other personages — monks, friars, etc. Last, but not least, stood an image of Old Nick himself, with a pair of huge horns, holding in his hand a pitchfork, and otherwise accoutred, with all the frightful ugliness that their ingenuity could devise.

"Their next step, after they had mounted their ponderous vehicle on four wheels, chosen their officers — captain, first lieutenant, purser, etc. — placed a boy under the platform to elevate and move around the head of the pope, was to take up their line of march through the streets of the town, with dancers, a fiddle, and a large crowd, who made up a long procession. Their custom was to call at the principal houses, ring their bell, cause the pope to elevate his head and look round upon the audience, and repeat the following lines :

"The fifth of November,
As you well remember,
Was gunpowder treason and plot ;
I know of no reason
Why the gunpowder treason
Should ever be forgot.

'When the first King James the sceptre swayed
This hellish powder-plot was laid ;
Thirty-six barrels of powder placed down below,
All for old England's overthrow.
Happy the man, and happy the day,
That caught Guy Fawkes in the middle of his play.
You'll hear our bell go "jink, jink, jink,"
Pray, madam — sirs, if you'll something give,
We'll burn the dog, and never let him live.
Match, touch! Catch, prime!
In the good nick of time!
Here is the Pope that we've got,
The whole promoter of the plot.
We'll stick a pitchfork in his back,
And throw him in the fire,' etc., etc., etc.

"After the verses were repeated, the purser stepped forward and took up the collection. They concluded their evening's entertainment with a splendid supper and a bonfire."



LANDSEER'S DOGS.

SHAKESPEARE speaks with contempt of a man in office — one “*dressed in a little brief authority*” — who exercises the power conferred upon him with conceit, arrogance, and despotism. The picture we present to our readers, though it only exhibits a group of dogs, forcibly recalls to mind the words of the great moralist.

Look at the cur upon the table! He is either appointed to office by his master, or he has usurped the place, of his own head. There he sits, keeping guard over the good things about the room. What an air of superiority he assumes! What a cold, heartless rebuff does he give to the pleadings, the whinings, and the yearnings of his fellow brutes! What cares he that they are gripped with hunger? His stomach is full; his ribs are lined with fat!

If this dog could speak, we could imagine him to address his auditors much as follows: “Get out, you brutes, you dogs, and don’t bother me! I want to go to sleep. I have n’t had a nap these two hours. Don’t you know better, you low, vulgar blackguards, than to disturb a gentleman like me? Get out, I say!”

Now such a speech would become a cur;

but how ill would it seem in a man! Yet there are some men, sad are we to say it, who are very currish in their manners. Even in the exercise of their duties, they are harsh and dogmatical. Let such people come and look at their portrait in the dog upon the table.

The original of this picture is by Landseer, of London, the best painter of animals that has ever lived. He not only paints their bodies accurately, but he gives the air, the character, the mind and soul, of the animals he portrays. And often he goes further, and hits off the follies and vices of society, as in the picture before us. There is thus a meaning and moral in many of his pieces, which render them as instructive as the fables of Æsop.

Now we wish all our readers, young and old, to study the picture of the proud cur and his hungry brothers. Study the countenance of the former; and remember, my friends, that when you are rude to those placed beneath you in station — when you exercise your power harshly and despotically — it is ten to one that you look very much like that fat cur; it is ten to one that your brow has the same malignant leer — that

your mouth has the same supercilious twist — that in fact you are, as far as a human being can be, like that very cur.

Now what can be more low, mean, and silly, than for one who belongs to the human family to imitate a dog. My friends, let this be a caution to us all; let us shun low examples, and endeavor to raise ourselves by imitating high examples. How lofty, how beautiful, does the conduct of our Saviour appear, in the exercise of his authority! How gentle was he to the poor and unfortunate — how kind even to children! "Suffer them to come to me," said he, "and forbid them not."

And look at the conduct of Washington. How kind, how gentle was he, also, to those

beneath him! And so all persons, truly great, are considerate of the feelings of others, and when they see any one suffering from a sense of poverty, or weakness, or misfortune, they do not frown upon him and crush him, but they encourage him, and seek to soothe his pained, irritated mind.

In our country, there are many people who get suddenly rich. These persons are in danger of becoming proud and haughty — looking down with lofty contempt upon those less wealthy than themselves. Let such persons remember that Mr. Landseer has painted their portrait, and that everybody can see the resemblance between them and the fat cur in our picture.



PIERRE RAMUS.

PIERRE DE LA RAMÉE, more generally known by the name of *Ramus*, was born in 1515, in a village in Normandy. His parents were of the poorest rank; his grandfather being a charbonnier, a calling similar to that of the coalheaver, and his father a

laborer. Poverty being his consequent inheritance, Ramus was early left to his own resources; no sooner, therefore, had he attained the age of eight years, than he repaired to Paris. The difficulty he found there of obtaining common subsistence soon

obliged him to return home: another attempt which he afterwards made, met with no better success.

Early imbued with a strong love and desire for learning, he suffered every misery and privation, in order to obtain the means necessary for its acquirement. Having received a limited aid from one of his uncles, he, for a third time, set out for Paris, where, immediately on his arrival, he entered the college of Navarre in the capacity of valet; during the day fulfilling every menial task, but devoting his nights to his dear and absorbing study.

This extreme perseverance and application, regardless of difficulties, obtained its consequent reward. Being admitted to the degree of master of arts, which he received with all its accompanying scholastic honors, he was enabled to devote himself with more intensity to study. By the opinions which he promulgated, in the form of a thesis, respecting the philosophy of Aristotle,—a doubt of whose sovereign authority at that time was considered a profane and audacious sacrilege,—he attracted the attention of the scholars of the time, and ultimately their enmity. With the uncompromising hardihood of his character, he continued to deny the infallibility of the favorite code of philosophy, and published, in support of his opinions, two volumes of criticisms upon Aristotle's works.

Ramus was at first persecuted merely with scholastic virulence, but, on his further irritating his opponents, a serious accusation was brought against him, before the Parliament of Paris; and to such lengths had the matter gone as to call for the mediation of Francis the First.

Ramus was found guilty, and sentenced, in 1543, to vacate his professorship, and his works were interdicted throughout the kingdom. This severe sentence, however, did not produce the effect desired by the Sorbonne; for, in the following year, he was appointed to a professorship in the college of Presles, and, in 1551, received the further appointment of royal professor of philosophy and rhetoric. His opinions had, however, attracted the attention and enmity of a more powerful body than that of the Sorbonne. To contest the infallibility of Aristotle, at the same time that it attacked scholastic prejudices, was sufficient to provoke a revolution even in theology. The consequence to Ramus was implacable hatred from the ecclesiastical body, who seemed intent upon his destruction.

One of the great subjects of reform at-

tempted by Ramus, and which created the greatest animosity against him, was that which had for its object the introduction of a democratical government into the church. He pretended that the consistories alone ought to prepare all questions of doctrine, and submit them to the judgment of the faithful. The people, according to his tenets, possessed in themselves the right of choosing their ministers, of excommunication, and absolution.

The persecution of Ramus was carried to such an extent, that, according to Bayle, he was obliged to conceal himself. At the king's instigation, he for some time secreted himself at Fontainebleau, where, by the aid of the works he found in the royal library, he was enabled to prosecute his geometrical and astronomical studies. On his residence there being discovered, he successfully concealed himself in different places, thinking by that means to evade his relentless persecutors. During his absence, his library at Presles was given up to public pillage.

On the proclamation of peace, in the year 1563, between Charles the Ninth and the Protestants, Ramus returned to his professorship, devoting himself principally to the teaching of mathematics. On the breaking out of the second civil war, in 1567, he was again obliged to quit Paris, and seek protection in the Huguenot camp, where he remained until the battle of St. Denis. A few months after this, on peace being again proclaimed, he once more returned to his professorial duties; but, foreseeing the inevitable approach of another war, and fearing the consequent result, he sued for the king's permission of absence, under the plea of visiting the German academies, which being granted, he retired to Germany, in 1568, where he was received with every demonstration of honor. Ramus returned to France on the conclusion of the third war, in 1571, and perished in the massacre of St. Bartholomew, as related by Moreri in the following words:

"Ramus having concealed himself during the tumult of the massacre, he was discovered by the assassins sent by Charpentier, his competitor. After having paid a large sum of money, in the hopes of bribing his assassins to preserve his life, he was severely wounded, and thrown from the window into the court beneath. Partly in consequence of the wounds received and the effects of the fall, his bowels protruded. The scholars, encouraged by the presence of their professors, no sooner saw this, than they tore them from the body, and scattered them in the

street, along which they dragged the body, beating it with rods, by way of contempt."

Such was the horrid death of one of the most estimable men that ever lived. The private life of Ramus was most irreproachable. Entirely devoting himself to study and research, he refused the most lucrative preferments, choosing rather the situation of professor at the college of Presles. His temperance was exemplary: except a little bouilli, he ate little else for dinner. For

twenty years he had not tasted wine, and afterwards, when he partook of it, it was by the order of his physicians. His bed was of straw; he rose early, and studied late; he was never known to foster an evil passion of any kind; he possessed the greatest firmness under misfortune. His only reproach was his obstinacy; but every man who is strongly attached to his convictions is subject to this reproach.



PUNCH AND JUDY.

THERE are some wise old people, who, when they hear the music of the showmen in the streets, are very much annoyed, and wish to have the vagrants sent off to the work-house. Gently — gently — Mr. Snarl. This very exhibition of Punch and Judy has given more innocent pleasure than almost any other that was ever invented.

The story of Punch and his wife Judy had its origin in Italy. As it is a pleasant story, we will tell it. In the district of Acezza, near Naples, the people are very much addicted to the making of wine from grapes; and it is curious that from antiquity they have been famous for their love of droll wit and comic fun.

Well, many years ago, in the season of the vintage, which is a time when everybody seems to be full of joke and frolic, some comic players came along, through Acezza. They began to poke fun at the vintagers, and in the war of wit, the players got the worst of it.

Now there was, among the vintagers, a fellow with an enormous red nose, long and crooked like a powder horn; and he was the

very drollest and wittiest of the whole company. The players were so tickled with his witty sayings, all set off by his odd face and very queer air and manner, that they almost cracked their sides with laughter.

After they went away, they began to think that this droll fellow would be a great accession to their company; so they went back and made offers to him. These he accepted; and such was the success of his efforts that the company acquired great fame and a great deal of money. Everybody went to see this witty buffoon, and all were delighted.

This example led to the establishment of a droll or buffoon in all companies of comedians; and he was always called after the original one, whose name was Puccio d'Aniello. This was, in the course of time, softened into Policcenello; the French made it *Polichinel*, and the English, *Punchinello*. After a time, the English, for the sake of brevity, left off the latter part of the word, and called it plain Punch.

How Judy originated, history does not tell us; but it is easy to guess out her story. Such a merry fellow as Punch has as good

a right to a wife as anybody, if he can get one. Why not? You may think that his beet-like nose would stand in the way of his finding a woman willing to marry him; but his wit is a fair offset to this. Women are fond of wit, and Punch would play his part ill, if he could not make it cover his nose.

Well, we now suppose Punch to have a wife, and also suppose her name to be Judy. What, then, is more natural than for this amiable couple, now and then, to have a bit of a breeze? They live a wandering life, and do, like other people in their station,

take a little liquor to raise their spirits. After the effect is over, feeling a little peevish, they fall to calling each other hard names, and hard blows follow, as natural as life. So here is the whole history, fairly made out.

Gentle reader! if you are young, you will not quarrel with the showmen, nay, you will stand by, clap your hands and pay your pence. If you are old, consider that you were once young, and tolerate the innocent exhibition, in behalf of those who are now what you were some half century ago.



Toad-stools.

TOAD-STOOLS AND MUSHROOMS.

THESE two kinds of plants, though of similar appearance, are so very different, that while one is poisonous, the other is a wholesome and delicious article of food.

The toad-stool, of which we give a picture above, usually grows in moist places, and where the soil is very rich.

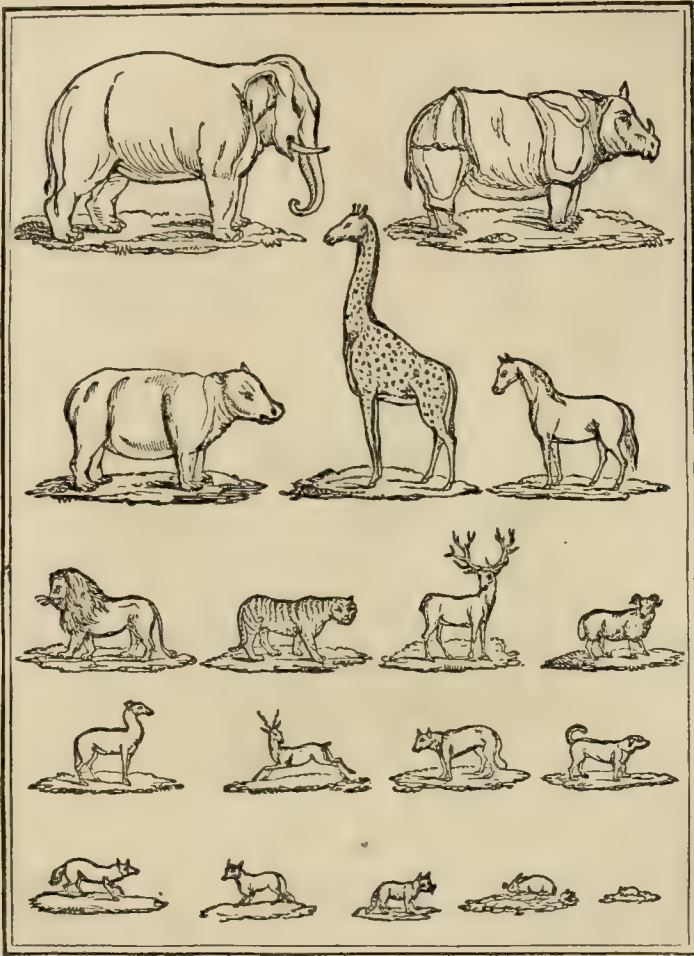
The mushroom grows in situations similar to those in which the toad-stool is found. They both belong to the genus which the botanists call *agarice*; but they may be easily distinguished. The edges of the mushroom are usually thin, ragged, and turned a little upward; while those of the



Mushrooms.

toad-stool are bent down, and carried round in a smooth circle, the top being shaped like an umbrella. The under side of the mushroom is of a pinkish hue, and the skin is easily peeled off from the top.

The mushroom is cooked in various ways; here, it is chiefly used for making ketchup; but in France, the people stew and fry it, and consider it among the most delicate of dishes.



COMPARATIVE SIZE OF ANIMALS.

THE above engraving represents several well-known animals, and exhibits them in just proportion to one another. The elephant is the largest, and the rat is the smallest, in the picture. The camelopard, or giraffe, is the tallest—for, while the elephant is only about nine or ten feet high, the giraffe is seventeen.

It is well to be able to carry in the memory an accurate idea of the comparative size of quadrupeds; and, therefore, we ask our young readers to run over the picture for this purpose. The elephant, with his curling trunk and long tusks, takes the lead; and he is six times as large as a horse. Next comes the rhinoceros, with a horn on his

nose, and a skin that makes him look as if he had a harness on.

Next comes the hippopotamus—a fellow that loves the mud—and a stupid creature he seems to be. Then comes the tall giraffe, with ears resembling horns, and standing up very straight for a four-legged creature. The horse, one of the most graceful of animals, is next. Then comes the lion—then the tiger—then the stag—then the sheep—then the deer—then the antelope—then the wolf—then the dog—then the jackal—then the fox—then the wild-cat—then the rabbit—then, last and least, the rat.



PERILS OF THE WILDERNESS.

A REMARKABLE instance of fortitude amid danger and suffering is furnished in the adventures of Madame Godin. She was the wife of a French astronomer, sent by the government to South America in the year 1735, for scientific purposes. By a strange course of events, she was separated from her husband for many years. At last, she proceeded to join him at Guiana. Being near the city of Quito, her plan was to pass down the Amazon; and she set out, accompanied by her children, and several other persons as attendants.

After passing through incredible difficulties and dangers, they lost their boat in the river, several of their party having deserted or been drowned. Having lost nearly all their effects, as well as their boat, they built a raft, and attempted to continue their voyage. This miserable craft soon struck against a snag, overset, and plunged the whole party, and all their baggage, into the water. Madame Godin sunk twice, but by great exertion she was saved to endure new

perils and sufferings. The party all gained the shore, but as they had few clothes, and no implements of any kind, and very scanty provision, they were in an alarming situation.

The company, consisting of eight persons, now began their journey through the nearly impervious thickets, and, in a few days, utterly lost themselves. Their provisions were exhausted, no water was to be found, their feet were lacerated, and one after another they laid themselves down and expired. Madame Godin alone survived, being in the midst of a frightful wilderness, abounding in wild beasts and venomous reptiles. Half delirious, stupefied, and tormented with thirst, this heroic woman still determined not to abandon herself to her fate. So, after two days, she arose, and dragged herself forward. She had no shoes, and her clothes were nearly torn to shreds. She, however, cut the shoes off the feet of her dead brother, and made herself sandals.

Thus wretchedly equipped she wandered up and down the dreary solitude. The spectacle of the dead around her, and the constant fear of death herself, had such an effect upon her, that her hair turned suddenly gray. On the second day's march, she found water, and some wild fruit and birds' eggs. This food gave her strength to continue her journey, which lasted eight days. On the ninth, she reached the banks of a river. Here she was startled by a

noise, which at first terrified her; but she at length found that it was occasioned by two Indians, who were launching a canoe. She approached them, and they, taking pity on her forlorn situation, carried her to their hut, and treated her with the utmost kindness. By their aid, she succeeded in finishing her journey; and finally joined her husband in safety, after a separation of twenty years.



Jeremiah foretelling the downfall of Jerusalem.

THE PROPHET JEREMIAH.

JEREMIAH was one of the most celebrated of the Jewish prophets. He lived about six hundred years before Christ, and prophesied about seventy years after Isaiah. He began his career, by divine command, at an early age. He was a man of great piety, and a sincere lover of his country. He foresaw the evils which his sinful countrymen would bring upon themselves by their idolatries, and while he warned them of the wrath to come, he seems to have done it with an almost breaking heart.

It became his duty, in obedience to the instruction of God, to predict the downfall of Jerusalem, and the destruction of the temple. Zedekiah was then king of Judah, and the fearful prophecy, no doubt, grated harshly on his ear. The people, too, who cared not for the truth, but only desired a prophet who would prophesy smooth things, took Jeremiah, and were near putting him to death, only on account of his fidelity.

In the twenty-first chapter of the proph-

cies of Jeremiah, we see his prediction of the fate that awaited Jerusalem, and in the fifty-second chapter, we see how this sad and fearful warning was fulfilled.

After the destruction of Jerusalem,—he himself witnessing the completion of this prophecy,—he was carried into Egypt, with a remnant of the Jews, and, according to tradition, was murdered by his countrymen, for warning them against their idolatrous practices.

The book of Lamentations is a melancholy and pathetic poem, written by Jeremiah, in commemoration of the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar. It is exceedingly affecting, and it is impossible to read it without deeply sympathizing with the afflicted prophet. Some parts are very beautiful, and the whole being imbued with a religious spirit and feeling, it is calculated, in a peculiar degree, to soften, purify, and sanctify the heart of the Christian.



THE OTTER.

THE body of the otter is long, measuring usually about two feet, besides the tail, which is nearly sixteen inches; the legs are short, strong, muscular, and so placed, as to be capable of being brought into a line with the body, and performing the functions of fins. On each foot are five toes, which are webbed, and furnished with strong, sharp nails. The eyes are large, brilliant, and so situated in the head, that the animal can see any object that is above it, which adds to the singularity of its aspect. The fur of the otter is deep blackish brown, with two small light spots on each side of the nose, and another under the chin.

The otter is a native of the whole continent of Europe, and of North America. It makes its habitation on the banks of rivers, where it burrows to some depth. Its principal food being fish, it is a semi-amphibious animal, living almost constantly in the water. The burrow is constructed with great sagacity, the entrance of the hole being invariably under water, inclining upwards to the surface of the earth; and before reaching the top, he constructs several lodges, at different heights, to which he may retire, in the event of floods; for, although so much accustomed to a watery element, no animal is more particular in lying quite dry. At the top of the uppermost of these cells, he opens a very small orifice, for the admission of air; and the more effectually to conceal this opening, it is generally in the middle of a thick bush of willows, or other shrubs.

During winter, in Canada, otters are in the habit of travelling to a considerable dis-

tance from rivers, but for what purpose has not been ascertained. In these cases, the Indians track them in the snow, and kill them with clubs, which they carry. The otter is a slow-paced animal; and, if closely pursued, before being overtaken, when the snow happens to be light and deep, he immediately dives a considerable way under it: but this seldom avails him; for his crafty pursuers can easily trace him by his motions in passing through the snow.

The otter is naturally an animal of a ferocious disposition; but, nevertheless, when taken young, and properly treated, it can easily be rendered quite tame, and may be taught to catch fish, and fetch them to its master.

In the *Prædium Rusticum* of Vaniere, mention is made of tame otters being employed in fishing, in the following passage, translated from that author:

"Should chance within this dark recess betray
The tender young, bear quick the prize away.
Tamed by thy care, the useful broods shall join
The watery chase, and add their toils to thine;
From each close-lurking hole shall force away,
And drive within their nets, the silver prey:
As the taught hound the timid stag subdues,
And o'er the dewy plain the panting hare pursues."

Hunting the otter, formerly, was a favorite pastime in Britain; but it has now fallen greatly into disuse. A few otter-hounds are, however, still to be found. During Elizabeth's reign, large packs were kept for this diversion, which was eagerly practised by the young nobles. In Somerville's beautiful poem of the *Chase*, he makes the following allusion to the otter, and moralizes on its destructive propensities:—

"Where rages not oppression? Where, alas!
Is innocence secure? Rapine and spoil
Haunt e'en the lowest deeps. Seas have their sharks;
Rivers and ponds enclose the ravenous pike;
He, in his turn, becomes a prey; on him
The amphibious otter feasts. Just is his fate
Deserved; but tyrants know no bounds; nor spears
That bristle on his back, defend the perch
From his wide greedy jaws; nor burnished mail
The yellow carp; nor all his arts can save
The insinuating eel, that holes his head
Beneath the slimy mud; nor yet escapes
The crimson-spotted trout, the river's pride,
And beauty of the stream. Without remorse,
This midnight pillager, raging around,
Insatiate, swallows all. The owner mourns
The unpeopled rivulet, and gladly hears
The huntsman's early call.

The otter, when hunted, and overaken by dogs, defends itself with great obstinacy, never yielding while he has life, and inflicting very severe wounds on his adversaries. He not unfrequently fastens like a bull-dog, and seldom quits his hold till killed.

The flesh of the otter is extremely rank and fishy; on which account, the Romish Church permitted it to be eaten on meagre days. We are informed by Pennant, that, when on his travels, he once entered the kitchen of the Carthusian convent, near Dijon, in France, where he saw an otter cooking for the religious of that rigid order, who, by their rules, were bound to perpetual abstinence from animal food.

When the otter has caught a fish, he carries it to the banks of the river, and devours the head and upper parts of the body, leaving the rest untouched; so that it requires a considerable quantity to allay his hunger. He pursues his prey, generally, from the bottom upwards, and takes them by surprise, which he can easily do, from the way in which his eyes are situated.

The female brings forth in the spring, from four to five at a birth. Their parental affection is so powerful, that they will frequently suffer themselves to be killed rather than quit their progeny; and this is often the occasion of their losing their lives, when they might otherwise have escaped.

Professor Stellar says, "Often have I spared the lives of the female otters, whose young ones I took away. They expressed their sorrow, by crying like human beings, and followed me as I was carrying off their young, while they called to them for aid, with a tone of voice which very much resembled the crying of children. When I sat down in the snow, they came quite close to me, and attempted to carry off their young.

"On one occasion, when I had deprived an otter of her progeny, I returned to the

place eight days after, and found the female sitting by the river, listless and desponding; who suffered me to kill her on the spot, without making any attempt to escape. On skinning her, I found that she was quite wasted away, from sorrow for the loss of her young.

"Another time, I saw, at some distance from me an old female otter sleeping by the side of a young one, about a year old. As soon as the mother perceived us, she awoke the young one, and enticed him to betake himself to the river. But, as he did not take the hint, and seemed inclined to prolong his sleep, she took him up in her fore paws, and plunged him into the water."

James Campbell, near Inverness, Scotland, procured a young otter, which he brought up and tamed. It would follow him wherever he chose; and if called on by its name, would immediately obey. When apprehensive of danger from dogs, it sought the protection of its master, and would endeavor to spring into his arms, for greater security. It was frequently employed in catching fish, and would, sometimes take eight or ten salmon in a day. If not prevented, it always made an attempt to break the fish behind the anal fin, which is next the tail; and, as soon as one was taken away, it always dived in pursuit of more. It was equally dexterous at sea-fishing, and took great numbers of young cod, and other fish, there. When tired, it would refuse to fish any longer, and was then rewarded with as much as it could devour. Having satisfied its appetite, it always coiled itself round, and fell asleep, in which state it was generally carried home.

A person who kept a tame otter taught it to associate with his dogs, who were upon the most friendly terms with it on all occasions; and it would follow him on different excursions, in company with his canine attendants. He was in the practice of fishing in rivers with nets; on which occasions, the otter proved highly useful to him, by going into the water and driving trout and other fish towards the net. It was very remarkable, that dogs accustomed to otter-hunting were so far from offering it the least molestation, that they would not even hunt any other otter while it remained with them; on which account the owner was under the necessity of parting with it.

A man of the name of William Collins, who resided in Northumberland, England, had a tame otter, which followed him wherever he went. He frequently took it

to fish in the river, for its own food; and when satiated, it never failed to return to its master. One day, in the absence of Collins, the otter being taken out to fish, by his son, instead of returning as usual, refused to come at the accustomed call, and was lost.

Collins tried every means to recover it, and, after several days' search, being near the place where his son had lost it, and calling it by its name, to his inexpressible joy, it came creeping to his feet, exhibiting many marks of affection and firm attachment.



THE SUGAR-CANE.

SUGAR is found in a great many vegetables, particularly in beets, carrots, parsnips, sugar-cane, Indian corn, the sugar-maple tree, &c. Sugar is manufactured from beets, in large quantities, in France, and in this country it is made from beets, also, to some extent. It is also made from the juice of the maple-tree, particularly in the Western States. In March, the trees are tapped in the sides, and little reeds are inserted, in which the sap, as it ascends from the earth to the extremities, is caught and conducted into wooden troughs. It is then boiled down, and becomes first molasses, and then sugar. Many millions of pounds are made in this way every year.

But this is a very small quantity, compared with what is made from the sugar-cane, in the West Indies, Louisiana, and South America. The sugar-cane is a jointed reed, of a fine straw color, growing

from eight to fourteen feet high. It terminates at the top in blade-shaped leaves, the edges of which are finely notched. Its flowers form a delicate silver-colored cluster.

When the cane is about a year old, it is cut, and crushed between iron rollers, which press out the juice. This is then conducted into large copper boilers, and by various processes of boiling and cooling, it is at last made into sugar, and molasses, the latter being the liquid part, that drips from the sugar. In the process of manufacture, a good deal of lime and bullocks' blood are mixed with the juice of the cane, and these assist in refining the sugar.

A very interesting discovery has lately been made in this country, which is, that the stalks of Indian corn, if the ears are cropped just after they begin to set, will produce more sugar than the cane. Accordingly a machine for the crushing of the

stalks has been contrived, and a model of it may be seen at the Patent Office at Washington. It is said that a single acre of ground will yearly produce a ton of sugar, and it is believed that sugar will soon be raised in abundance in the Western States, in this way. The stalks make excellent fodder for cattle, after the juice is crushed out.

Sugar is now regarded as one of the necessities of life, and about six hundred thousand tons, or one hundred and twenty millions of pounds, are annually produced.

Yet it seems that sugar was not known to the Greeks or Romans, and it is never mentioned in the Bible. It was, in fact, known only as a medicine till modern times. In the tenth century, it took the place of honey in the druggist's shop, and was chiefly used in fevers, to relieve them.

The sugar-cane was found growing wild in the West Indies, by Christopher Columbus. The art of refining sugar, so as to make it white, was discovered in the sixteenth century, by a Venetian, who made a vast fortune by it.



Solon writing laws for Athens.

SOLON.

OF all the nations of antiquity, the Greeks were, in many respects, the most interesting. Though they inhabited one country, they were divided into different states, somewhat as the United States are. Among the principal states were Athens and Sparta. The people, government, and laws of these were very different. The Athenians cultivated literature, such as poetry and history; but the Spartans despised these things. The Athenians were devoted to science and philosophy; the Spartans had no relish for them. The Athenians encouraged the arts—as music, sculpture, painting, and architecture; the Spartans held such things in contempt. The Athenians were gay, fickle, and fond of pleasure; the Spartans were severe, determined, and devoted to war.

It is not easy to account for such differences of character in the people of two

states, living but a few miles apart. Probably it was owing in part to original differences in the people who settled the two countries, and in part to the difference of the laws.

Sparta had a famous lawgiver, named Lycurgus. He drew up a system, or code of laws, and then called the people together. He told them he was going away, and asked them if they would keep his laws till he should return. This they solemnly promised to do: so Lycurgus went away, and starved himself to death. His object was to make the Spartans keep his laws forever. His body was burned, by his direction, and his ashes thrown into the sea, so that the Spartans could not bring his body back, and thus have an excuse for setting aside his laws. He died about two thousand seven hundred years ago.

Solon was the greatest lawgiver of

Athens. Many of his laws were wise and good, and some of them have even descended to our day, and are incorporated in our own codes. But the people of Athens were changeable; and, soon after

Solon's death, the supreme power was usurped by an ambitious citizen, named Pisistratus, and the government thus became, for a time, a sort of despotism.



THE STAG.

WE have several species of deer in America, but the stag is not among them. It is the most beautiful of the genus, if we take into consideration the elegance of his form, the lightness of his motions, the flexibility of his limbs, and his bold branching horns, which have three antlers, all curving upwards, the summit forming a crown of snags, from a common centre. His eyes are large, bold, and expressive, and are furnished with lachrymal sinuses; the fur is reddish-brown in summer, and brownish-gray in winter; the hind quarters are of a pale buff.

At one period the horns of stags grew into a much greater number of ramifications than at the present day; some have supposed this to have arisen from the greater profusion of food, and from the animal having more repose, before the population became so dense. In some individuals these multiplied to an extraordinary extent. There is one in the museum of Hesse-Cassel with twenty-eight antlers. Baron Cuvier mentions one of sixty-six, or thirty-three on

each horn. This stag was killed by the first king of Prussia.

The stag begins to shed his horns in the latter end of February, or beginning of March, when he retires to thickets, and remains till the horns are completely restored. Soon after the old horns have fallen off, a soft tumor begins to appear, which is quickly covered with a velvet-like substance. From this, every day, little buds shoot forth, like the grafts of a tree, and rising by degrees, spring out the antlers on each side; the skin continues to cover it for some time, and is furnished with blood-vessels, which supply the growing horn with nourishment, and occasion the furrows observable in them when the covering is stripped off. When the horns are full grown, they acquire strength and solidity, and the velvet covering, or skin, with its blood-vessels, dries up, and begins to fall off; which is facilitated by the animal rubbing them against trees. At this time they again enter the open parts of the forest, to join the female. The hind is gravid eight months and some days,

and produces a single fawn, in the end of May or beginning of June. The fawn continues with the dam during the summer, but in the winter all the animals of both sexes, and their young, congregate in large herds, and extend as the severity of the winter increases, remaining together till the males disperse to shed their horns.

The full-grown stag is from three feet six inches to four feet high at the shoulders, and the horns rise to nearly three feet above the head. He is said to be very long lived; but late observation limits the period of his existence to twenty years.

The stag inhabits every part of Europe, excepting Lapland. They are to be found in Gloucestershire, and the north-west of Devonshire, England; a few are still reared on some of the islands of Loch Lomond, in Scotland; and they are to be met with in a wild state in some of the mountainous districts in the south-west of Ireland.

Stag-hunting has been a favorite pastime from very remote periods. He is a strong animal, and capable of running a long time, and of making a defence when overtaken. In Britain, large tracts of land were anciently set apart for making forests to shelter stags. Villages and sacred edifices were destroyed, and converted into a wide waste. In the reigns of William Rufus and Henry I., it was considered more criminal to kill a beast of chase than a human being. But these times have passed away; and commerce, useful arts, and the wide improvements of agriculture, have, in their turn, arisen, to replace tyranny and oppression.

At Veuve, a village situated on the river Ouche, which falls into the Paone, about twelve miles below Dijon, in the province of Cote d'Or, France, it was formerly customary, from the beginning of April till the end of June, to drive the cows to graze upon the neighboring hills, situated on the opposite side of the river, through which they waded without difficulty. In the year 1757, at the hour when the herds were driven to pasture, a stag used daily to come down from the hills to the banks of the river and meet them. The bull which accompanied these cattle, proud of his imagined superiority and strength, and jealous of his rights, attempted to drive away this intruder, by butting him with his horns. The stag willingly accepted the challenge, and attacked the bull with such impetuosity, that he was obliged to yield to him the command of the herd. This combat was daily renewed, and the two rivals challenged each other to the onset, while still

at a great distance from each other, and the hills actually resounded with their bellowing. But such was the vigor of the stag's attacks, and the rapidity of his movements, that he always came off victorious, and led the cows every day triumphantly to the hills, availing himself of all the rights of a conqueror.

At Wonersh, near Guildford, the seat of Lord Grantly, a fawn was drinking in the lake, when one of the swans suddenly flew upon it, and pulled the poor animal into the water, where it held it under, till it was drowned. This act of atrocity was noticed by the other deer in the park, and they took care to revenge it, the first opportunity. A few days after, this swan happening to be on land, was surrounded and attacked by the whole herd, and presently killed. Before this time they were never known to molest the swans.

The native courage of the stag has often formed an interesting topic of inquiry; and the following circumstance will show that when pressed by enemies, he possesses it in an eminent degree:

As Captain Smith, of the Bengal Native Infantry, was out in that country with a shooting-party, very early in the morning, they observed a tiger steal out of a jungle, in pursuit of a herd of deer; having selected his object, the poor animal was quickly deserted by the herd; the tiger advanced with such amazing swiftness, that the stag in vain attempted to escape, and at the moment the gentlemen expected to see the fatal spring, the stag gallantly faced his enemy, and for some minutes kept him at bay; and it was not till after three attacks that the tiger succeeded in securing his prey. He was supposed to have been considerably injured by the horns of the stag, as, on the advance of Captain Smith, he abandoned the carcass, having only sucked the blood from the throat.

The following experiment was made by the late Duke of Cumberland, to ascertain the instinctive courage of the stag, when opposed to an enemy of the most formidable and terrific description. To effect this, one of the ablest stags in Windsor Forest was enclosed in an area, formed upon a selected spot, near the lodge, and surrounded with a remarkably strong net-toiling, full fifteen feet high. This operation took place in sight of Ascot-Heath races, so that thousands were present upon the occasion. When everything was prepared, and the stag parading in majestic consternation at the assemblage of people around the net-

work, a trained ounce, or hunting-tiger, was led in, hoodwinked, by the two blacks that had the care of him, and who, upon a signal, set him and his eyes at liberty. Perhaps so general a silence never prevailed among so many thousands of spectators as at that moment, when the slightest aspirations of a breeze might have been distinctly heard.

The ounce, taking one general survey, instantly caught sight of the deer, and crouching down on his belly, continued to creep exactly in the manner of a cat drawing up to a mouse, watching to dart upon it with safety. The stag, however, most warily, steadily, and sagaciously, turned as he turned; and this strange and desperate antagonist found himself dangerously opposed by the threatenings of his formidable brow-antlers. In vain did the ounce attempt every manœuvre to turn his flanks; the stag possessed too much generalship to be foiled upon the *terra firma* of his native country, by a foreign invader.

This cautious warfare continuing so long as to render it tedious, and, probably to protract the time of starting the horses upon the race-ground, the duke inquired if, by irritating the ounce, the catastrophe might not be hastened. He was answered, it probably might prove dangerous, or be attended with disagreeable consequences; but it was ordered to be done; upon which the keepers proceeded very near the ounce, and did as they were directed. Immediately, without attacking the deer, with a most furious and elastic bound, he sprang at and cleared the toiling that enclosed them—landing amidst the clamors, shouts, and affrighted screams of the multitude, who fled in every direction, each male and female thinking themselves the destined victim of the ounce's rage. Nevertheless, regardless of their fears or their persons, he crossed the road, and rushed into the opposite wood, where he fastened upon the haunch of one of the fallow-deer, and brought him to the ground. His keepers, to whom he was perfectly familiarized, hesitated for some time to go near him; at length, however, they mustered resolution to approach, and, cutting the deer's throat, separated the haunch which he had seized, and led him away with it in his mouth.

Among the varied novel and diversified experiments of a sporting nature, performed by the late Lord Oxford, perhaps none was more eccentric than his determination to drive four red-deer stags in a phaeton, instead of horses. These he had reduced

to perfect discipline for his excursions and short journeys upon the road; but, unfortunately, as he was one day driving to Newmarket, their ears were saluted with the cry of a pack of hounds, which, soon after crossing the road in the rear, caught scent of the "four-in-hand," and commenced a new kind of chase, with "breast-high" alacrity. The novelty of this scene was rich beyond description; in vain did his lordship exert all charioteering skill; in vain did his well-trained grooms energetically endeavor to ride before them; reins, trammels, and the weight of the carriage, were of no effect, for they went with the celerity of a whirlwind; and this modern Phaeton, in the midst of his electrical vibrations of fear, bid fair to experience the fate of his namesake. Luckily, however, his lordship had been accustomed to drive this set of "fiery-eyed steeds" to the Ram Inn, at Newmarket, which was most happily at hand; and to this his lordship's most fervent prayers and ejaculations had been ardently directed. Into the yard they suddenly bounded, to the consternation of hostlers and stable-boys, who seemed to have lost every faculty upon the occasion. Here they were luckily overpowered, and the stags, the phaeton, and his lordship, were all instantaneously huddled together in a barn, just as the hounds appeared in full cry at the gate.

Some years since, a stag, which had afforded Lord Derby's hounds a very fine run, leaped a boarded gate into a gentleman's grounds, with a spiked roller on the top of it; the height of the gate and roller being eight feet four inches. What made this great feat of animal power more remarkable, the deer was apparently run down at the time, with hounds snatching at his haunches, as he came down the road from whence he took the leap.

The following circumstances, mentioned by Delacroix, prove that the stag is susceptible of receiving instruction, and must be capable of considerable observation:—"When I was at Compeigne," says he, "my friends took me to a German, who exhibited a wonderful stag. As soon as we had taken our seats in a large room, the stag was introduced. He was of an elegant form and majestic stature, his aspect at once animated and gentle. The first trick he performed was, to make a profound obeisance to the company as he entered, by bowing his head; after which he paid his respects to each individual of us in the same manner. He next carried

about a small stick in his mouth, to each end of which a small wax taper was attached. He was then blindfolded, and at the beat of a drum, fell upon his knees, and laid his head upon the ground. As soon as the word *pardon* was pronounced, he instantly sprang upon his feet. Dice were thrown upon the head of a drum, and he told the numbers that were cast up, by bowing his head so many times. He discharged a pistol, by drawing with his teeth a string that was tied to the trigger. He fired a small cannon, by means of a match

that was fastened to his right foot, without showing any signs of fear. He leaped several times, with the greatest agility, through a hoop, which his master held at a man's height from the ground. At length the exhibition was closed, with his eating a handful of oats from the head of a drum, which a person was beating the whole time with the utmost violence. Almost every trick was performed with as much steadiness as it could have been accomplished by the best trained dog."



THE PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT.

THESE gigantic monuments, erected before the period at which authentic history begins, have ever excited the curiosity and wonder of mankind. Their vast antiquity, their amazing magnitude, the mystery which hangs over their origin and design, contribute to render them objects of intense interest.

There are great numbers of these structures in Egypt, and about eighty in Nubia. Those of the former country are all situated on the west side of the Nile, and extend, in an irregular line, to the distance of nearly seventy miles. The most famous are those of Jizeh, opposite the city of Cairo. The largest, which is said to have been built by Cheops, a king of Egypt, about nine hundred years before Christ, is by far the greatest structure in stone that has been reared by the hand of man. Near this

great pyramid, are two others, of considerable size, and several smaller ones. All have square foundations, and their sides face the cardinal points. The largest pyramid excited the wonder of Herodotus, who visited Egypt 450, B. C. He says that one hundred thousand men were employed twenty years in building it, and that the body of Cheops was placed in a room beneath the bottom of the pyramid. The second pyramid is said to have been built by Cephrenes, the brother of Cheops, and the third by Mycerines, the son of Cheops.

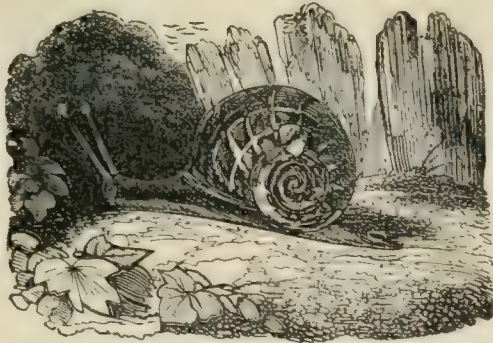
The great pyramid consists of a series of platforms, each of which is smaller than the one on which it rests, and consequently presents the appearance of steps. Of these steps there are two hundred and three. They are of unequal thickness, from two

feet and eight inches, to four feet and eight inches. The stones are cut and fitted to each other with great nicety. The whole height is four hundred and fifty-six feet. The top is a platform, thirty-two feet square. The foundation is seven hundred and sixty-three feet on each side, and covers a space of about thirteen acres. The pyramid has been entered, and has been found to consist of chambers and passages, some of great extent.

The material of which the pyramids are built is limestone, and it is probable that this was obtained from limestone quarries contiguous to the place where they now stand. The stones of the great pyramid rarely exceed nine feet in length, six and a half in breadth, and four feet eight inches in thickness. The ascent is attended with great difficulty and danger, on account of the broken state of the steps; yet it is frequently accomplished, and sometimes

by females. The scene from the top is described by travellers as inconceivably grand.

The purpose for which these monuments were reared has been a question of great interest. It has been conjectured that they were built as observatories, but this seems to be an absurd supposition; for why build three or four close together of nearly the same elevation? There is no good reason to doubt that they were erected as burial-places for the Egyptian kings, who caused them to be constructed. The natural pride of man, the desire of being remembered for ages, and probably some superstitious notions connected with the religion of the country, doubtless furnished the motives for the construction of these vast monuments. Nothing can better show the folly of human ambition, than that, while these senseless stones remain, their builders have perished, and their memories been blotted out forever.



THE SNAIL.

THIS creature, apparently so insignificant, is one of the greatest curiosities of nature. The animal consists of a soft, pulpy substance, with a curious shell, which serves as a house, and to which it always is attached. When the snail wishes to go from one place to another, he drags his shell along on his back; when he wishes to take some rest, or when he is frightened, he draws himself into his shell.

This little creature has almost as complete a set of the organs of life as the larger animals: he has a mouth, eyes, tongue, brain, nerves, stomach, liver, heart, muscles, &c. But some of these are curiously contrived. Its eyes, for instance, it carries on the points of its long horns, which it passes about in various directions, thus seeing everything that is going on near it.

Under its two smaller horns—for it has four—is the snail's mouth; and though it might seem too pulpy an animal to have teeth, yet it has eight of them, with which it devours leaves, and even bites off pieces of its own shell!

The snail is hatched from an egg; at first its shell is small, but it increases with the growth of the animal. If this shell gets broken, the creature straightway mends it, and makes it just as good as new. It is provided with a bag, in which it has a coloring matter, for painting its shell.

At the approach of winter, the snail either retires to some hole, or buries itself in the earth, where it remains in a torpid state till spring. In some countries, snails are eaten as food, and they are so much esteemed in France, that people raise thousands of them.



ALEXANDER SELKIRK.

ON the western coast of Chili, in South America, is an island called Juan Fernandez. It has become celebrated as the residence of Alexander Selkirk, whose adventures were the basis of the story of Robinson Crusoe.

Selcraig, or Selkirk, as he called himself after he went to sea, was born at Largo, in the county of Fife, in Scotland, in 1676. He received a common school education, and was then put to his father's business of shoemaking. He was the seventh son of his parents, and soon became a spoiled child. His waywardness of temper gave them much uneasiness. A strong desire to go to sea rendered his employment irksome to him, and an occurrence at last afforded him an opportunity to indulge his predilection. His irregularities rose to such a pitch that he fell under the formal censure of the church, and was cited to appear before the session. He was at this time eighteen years of age, and too stubborn to submit to a rebuke for his behavior; accordingly he left home, and nothing was heard of him for six years. There are good reasons for believing that he was with the buccaneers in the South Seas during this period. In 1701, we find

him again at Largo, but with the same irascible and intractable temper, and involved in constant broils with his family. As his fondness for a maritime life was unabated, he did not remain long in Scotland, but proceeded to London in search of new adventures.

At the metropolis he fell in with Captain Dampier, who was then fitting out an expedition against the Spaniards in the South Seas. Selkirk shipped with him as sailing-master of the Cinque Ports galley, a consort of Dampier's ship, the St. George, and sailed from London in the spring of 1703. After various adventures, both vessels arrived at the island of Juan Fernandez, in February, 1704. Having remained here some time to refit, they continued their cruise, and made numerous captures. The two vessels separated, and after this a violent quarrel broke out between Selkirk and Stradling, the commander of the Cinque Ports. So bitter was this animosity, that Selkirk resolved to leave the vessel, whatever might be the consequence. In a short time, the want of provisions and the crazy state of the vessel compelled Stradling to put back to the island. Here he remained

for some time, repairing and provisioning his vessel. When about to sail, Selkirk announced his determination to remain on the island, and was accordingly set on shore with all his effects. He leaped upon the land with a joyful feeling of liberty, shook hands with his comrades, and bade them a hearty adieu. But this joyous feeling was soon chilled. Scarcely had the sound of their oars, as they pulled away from the land, fallen upon his ears, when his heart sunk within him, and the horrors of solitude and the loss of all human society, perhaps forever, rushed into his mind. His resolution instantly abandoned him, and he called to his comrades to be taken on board; but Stradling was deaf to his entreaties, and took a pleasure in mocking his despair. The ship was soon out of sight, and Selkirk found himself the only human being in that lonely isle. This was near the end of September, 1704.

Juan Fernandez is about a dozen leagues in circuit. A great part of the island is mountainous and covered with wood, chiefly pimento, cotton and cabbage trees. The climate is delightful; wild goats run at large in the woods, and the shores are frequented by vast numbers of seals and sea-lions. It is a charming region, and might seem an agreeable residence, but the solitude in which Selkirk was placed made it as dreary to him as a desert. For many days after the departure of the ship, his dejection of mind was so extreme, that he sat immovably fixed upon the shore, gazing at the spot where her sails had sunk beneath the horizon, vainly hoping to see her return and relieve him from his misery. He took no food until compelled by the sharpest hunger, nor indulged in sleep until overpowered by watchfulness. The season was now the beginning of spring in that hemisphere, and all nature was verdant, blooming and fragrant; but his forlorn condition caused the beauties of the scenery and the balminess of the air to be disregarded. What greatly added to the horror of his loneliness, was the dismal wail of the sea-lions at night; to this was added the frequent crashing of falling trees and rocks among the heights, which often broke the drear stillness of midnight with strange and appalling sounds that echoed from valley to valley. In an excess of terror and despair he often meditated suicide; but, after several months, his melancholy began to wear away, and he cast about to see by what means he could improve his condition.

He had brought with him on shore his clothes and bedding, a musket, some pow-

der and shot, tobacco, a hatchet, a knife, a pewter pot, a flip-can, some mathematical instruments and books, and a Bible. The building of a hut was his first undertaking; this he constructed of pimento wood, and thatched the roof with long grass. At some distance he erected a smaller building for his kitchen. Both were lined with goat-skins. He shot these animals as long as his powder lasted, which was but a pound; afterwards he caught them by running them down. At first, he could overtake only the kids, but afterwards, so much did his frugal habits, joined to air and exercise, improve his strength, that he could overtake the swiftest goat on the island in a few minutes, toss it over his shoulder, and carry it with ease to his hut. This agility on one occasion nearly cost him his life. While pursuing a goat, he made a snatch at it on the brink of a precipice, which he did not perceive, as it was hidden by bushes, and both fell from a great height. He was so stunned and bruised by the fall, that he lay senseless for some hours, and when he came to himself, he found the goat lying dead beneath him. This happened about a mile from his hut, and he lay twenty-four hours before he was able to move. After crawling home with extreme difficulty, he remained ten days stretched upon his bed in great pain. This, however, was the only accident of the kind that happened to him during his residence in the island.

After his powder was exhausted, he obtained fire by the Indian method of rubbing two pieces of wood together. The cabbage-palm offered him a tolerable substitute for bread; vegetables of various kinds grew spontaneously, and a bed of turnips had been sowed on the island by Dampier's men; his meat he seasoned with pimento. Thus having food in abundance, and finding the climate healthy and pleasant, in about a year and a half he became reconciled to his situation. The time no longer hung heavy on his hands; his constant devotion, and the study of the Bible, soothed his feelings, and elevated his thoughts; undisturbed health, a temperate regimen, and the perpetual serenity of the sky, filled his mind with cheerfulness. He took delight in everything which lay around him, ornamented his hut with fragrant branches, and formed a verdant and delightful bower in which he tasted the sweets of repose after the toil of the chase. Hunting was his chief amusement, and he caught many more goats than he required for food; it was his custom, after running them down, to

mark their ears and let them escape. The kids he carried to the green lawn in front of his hut, and employed his leisure in taming them. They in time supplied him with milk, and even with something like social amusement, for he taught them to dance, and he often declared afterwards that he never danced with a lighter heart than he did to the sound of his own voice with his dumb companions.

At first, he suffered much annoyance from rats, which gnawed his feet during sleep; for a remedy, he caught some of the cats which ran wild in the woods, and tamed them. These put the rats to flight, and became his companions. He taught them to dance like his goats, and divert him by a variety of odd capers. The cats multiplied to such an extent, that he soon had a house full of them, and he was at times saddened by the thought of being eaten up by them after death.

His clothing soon wore out, and he made new dresses of goat-skins, in which he looked more wild than his brute companions. He always went barefoot, and neither shaved nor sheared his locks. After his knife was worn out, he chanced one day, in strolling along the beach, to find several iron hoops which had been left behind by some vessel.

This was a discovery of more value to him than a mine of gold or diamonds would have been, and afforded him materials for making tools as long as he staid on the island. One of them, which he had used as a chopper, was afterwards carried to London, and for many years was exhibited as a curiosity at the Golden Head Coffee-house, near Burlington Gate. He occasionally amused himself by carving his name upon the trees, with the date of his arrival in the island. Several times, during his stay, he saw vessels pass near. Two of them came to anchor. Selkirk always concealed himself on the approach of a vessel; but on one occasion, being anxious to know whether the ship was French or Spanish, he approached too near, and was discovered. A pursuit commenced, and several shot were fired at him. None of them took effect, and he hid himself by climbing up into a tree. His pursuers stopped under the tree and killed several goats near it, but not discerning Selkirk, they returned to the ship and sailed away. Had they been French, he would have given himself up, but as he saw that they were Spaniards, he chose to remain on the island and die alone, rather than run the risk of being shot, or linger out a life of misery in the mines of

Peru or Mexico, which he supposed might be his fate if he should fall into their hands. It was a strict maxim of their policy never to allow an Englishman to return to Europe who had gained any knowledge of the South Seas.

Selkirk had lived alone in the island upwards of four years, when, on the last day of January, 1709, he discovered two ships approaching; and as they drew near, he ascertained that they were English. Great was the tumult of emotions that now stirred his breast; but the love of society and of home overpowered every other desire. It was late in the afternoon when the ships came first in sight, and for fear they might sail by, without knowing there was a man on the island, he made a large fire to burn during the night. His hopes and fears banishing all thoughts of sleep, he employed the night in killing goats, and preparing an entertainment for his visitors. The ships were the Duke and Duchess, two large cruisers, under the command of Woodes Rogers, with Dampier for pilot. The sight of the fire on shore caused great alarm, and they conjectured that some hostile ship of war lay at anchor under the island. The ships were cleared for action, and during the forenoon of the following day, they kept a sharp lookout for the enemy. No vessel appearing, about noon a boat was sent on shore. Selkirk ran down to the beach, and astonished the crew by the wildness of his appearance, which literally struck them dumb. He had at this time his last shirt upon his back; his feet and legs were bare, and the rest of his body was covered with rough and shaggy goat-skins; his beard was of above four years' growth. His long disuse of conversation had affected his power of speech, and he uttered his words by halves.

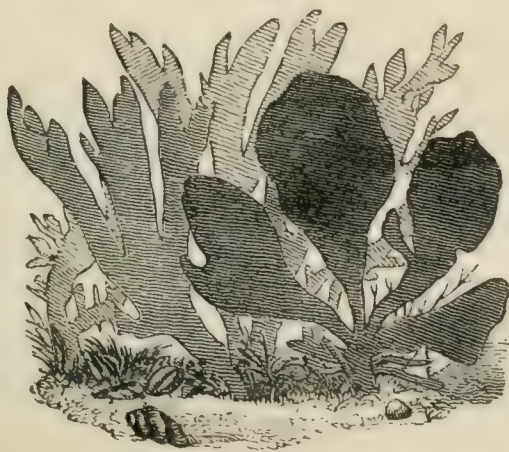
Selkirk was received on board, and engaged as mate of Rogers' ship, the Duke; he served in that capacity during the remainder of the expedition, and much to the satisfaction of the commander. After a long cruise, he arrived in England, in Oct., 1711, with eight hundred pounds of prize money, having been absent more than eight years. He no sooner had made his appearance in London, than his strange adventures attracted great attention, and he became an object of lively curiosity. Most of his visitors who have left any account of him, describe him as an unsociable person, of eccentric habits, and far from communicative. As he spoke in a broad Scotch dialect, it was with difficulty that he could be understood. Among his visitors was Sir Richard Steele, who collected from him such partic-

ulars as he could recollect of his life in the island, which he afterwards published, with reflections of his own, in the twenty-sixth number of the *Englishman*.

The reader may wish to know the sequel of Selkirk's history. He returned to his native town, where his parents received him with joy; but his recluse habits induced him to shun society, and he constructed a cave in the garden, where he lived in solitude. He purchased a boat, amused himself with fishing, and took lonely walks among the roads and glens in the neighborhood. In these rambles, he often met a young girl, Sophia Bruce, seated alone, and tending a single cow, the property of her parents. Her lonely occupation and innocent looks made a deep impression upon him, and he watched her for hours unseen, as she gathered wild flowers or chanted her rural lays. At length, he joined her in conversation; their attachment became mutual, and they eloped to London. It is supposed that she died a few years afterwards, or that Selkirk deserted her, as he returned to Scotland alone, and became involved in broils which brought him under the discipline of the church. This drove him once more to England, and he entered the navy.

He died some time in 1723. In a house at Craigie Well, strangers are yet gratified with the sight of the room in which he slept; they are also shown his sea-chest, and a cocoa-nut shell cup that belonged to him. But the most interesting relic, by far, is the flip-can which he had in the island, and which is now in the possession of his great-grand-nephew, John Selcraig.

Such is the story of Selkirk. Few persons have obtained so high, yet unsought renown. He never aimed at notoriety, yet immortality has been conferred upon him by one who knew him not. His adventures were first communicated to the world by Woodes Rogers, in the narrative of his voyage; after which the tale appeared in various shapes by other hands. Defoe adopted it for the groundwork of his romance of *Robinson Crusoe*; but there appears to be no evidence that Selkirk wrote a narrative himself, from which Defoe purloined his materials, as has been often suggested. The leading idea only was borrowed from Selkirk's adventures; but the whole arrangement and execution, all the filling up of incident, reflection and character, in *Robinson Crusoe*, were truly and entirely created by the genius of Defoe.



SEA-WEED.

EVERY portion of the earth seems covered with vegetation, except now and then some sandy desert. Even the rocks are covered with mosses; and we have heard of little red plants, that take root so thickly in snow-flakes, as to make a fall of snow seem like a shower of blood.

The bottom of the sea, too, is sown with

myriads of plants. These are of many forms and many hues, but mostly of a green color; it is owing to the plants beneath the surface that the sea has such a verdant tinge. In some tropical portions of the sea, the marine plants are so thick as to obstruct the passage of ships; and some species are said to grow seven hundred feet in length



THE MONKEY FAMILY.

THIS numerous tribe is divided into several kinds, some being with and some without tails. They are only found in warm countries. The larger species, as the orang-outang and the chimpansé, are of a grave character, while the lesser varieties are lively and gay. We give a selection of curious particulars and amusing anecdotes, collected from a variety of sources, relative to these animals.

The ape is very fond of spirituous liquors, and these are used, in some countries, for the purpose of entrapping them. A person places in their sight a number of vessels filled with ardent spirits, pretends to drink, and retires. The apes, ever attentive to the proceedings of man, descend, and imitate what they have seen, become intoxicated, fall asleep, and are thus rendered an easy prey to their cunning adversaries.

The Indians of South America make this proneness to imitation useful; for, when they wish to collect cocoa-nuts, and other fruits, they go to the woods where these grow, which are generally frequented by apes and monkeys, gather a few heaps, and

withdraw. As soon as they are gone, the apes fall to work, imitate everything they have seen done, and when they have gathered together a considerable number of heaps, the Indians approach, the apes fly to the trees, and the harvest is conveyed home.

We are told that persons who catch apes in Africa, by means of traps, are seldom successful but once in the same district; so soon do these animals become acquainted with the artifices employed against them. When they perceive an ape wounded, the community never fails to fly to his assistance. It has been said, that if wounded by an arrow, they will not pull it out, and thereby lacerate the flesh, but bite off the shaft, to enable their unfortunate brother to escape with greater facility.

Apes, in general, live very peaceably together. In large and fertile solitudes, sometimes whole herds of them, of different species, chatter together, without any dispute or disorder arising, and without one species intermingling with another. But if any marauders intrude upon a district

of which another community is in possession, they combine to assert their rights. M. de Maisoupre, and six other Europeans, were spectators of such a contest, which took place within the wall which surrounds the pagoda of Cheringham. A large and strong ape had privately got into the place, but was soon discovered by the resident tribe. Upon the first alarm-cry, a number of males immediately united together in an attack upon the interloper. Although the latter was much larger and stronger than his assailants, yet he perceived that he was in danger from the fury of their united attack, and fled for refuge to the top of the pagoda, which was eleven stories high, whither he was closely pursued by his enemies. When he found himself at the top of the building, which terminated in a small narrow dome, he took a secure position, and availing himself of the advantages of his situation, seized upon four of the most impetuous of his pursuers, and threw them down. These proofs of his prowess intimidated the rest, who thought proper, after a great deal of noise, to make good their retreat. The victor kept his post till the evening, and then escaped to a place of security.

Apes and monkeys, in many parts of India, are made objects of religious veneration, and magnificent temples are erected to their honor. In those countries, they propagate to an alarming extent; they enter cities in immense troops, and even venture into the houses. In some places, as in the kingdom of Calicut, the natives find it necessary to have their windows latticed, to prevent the ingress of these intruders, who lay hands without scruple upon every eatable within their reach. There are three hospitals for monkeys in Amadabad, the capital of Guzerat, where the sick and lame are fed and relieved by medical attendants!

We are told by François Pyard, that, in the neighborhood of Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, apes are to be found of a robust structure of body, which walk upright, are strong and active, and are sometimes trained to perform menial offices. They have been taught to pound substances in a mortar, and fetch water from the river in jugs. But unless these are immediately taken from them on their arrival at the door, they let them fall; and when they see them lying broken in pieces, they utter a lamentable kind of cry.

Speaking of the chimpansé of Africa, M. de Grandpré says,—"His sagacity is extraordinary; he generally walks upon two

legs, supporting himself with a stick. The negro fears him, and not without reason, as he sometimes treats him very roughly." M. de Grandpré saw, on board of a vessel, a female chimpansé, which exhibited wonderful proofs of intelligence. She had learned to heat the oven; she took great care not to let any of the coals fall out, which might have done mischief in the ship; and she was very accurate in observing when the oven was heated to the proper degree, of which she immediately apprized the baker, who, relying with perfect confidence upon her information, carried his dough to the oven as soon as the chimpansé came to fetch him. This animal performed all the business of a sailor, spliced ropes, handed the sails, and assisted at unfurling them; and she was, in fact, considered by the sailors as one of themselves. The vessel was bound for America; but the poor animal did not live to see that country, having fallen a victim to the brutality of the first mate, who inflicted very cruel chastisement upon her, which she had not deserved. She endured it with the greatest patience, only holding out her hands in a suppliant attitude, in order to break the force of the blows she received. But from that moment she steadily refused to take any food, and died on the fifth day, from grief and hunger. She was lamented by every person on board not insensible to the feelings of humanity, who knew the circumstances of her fate.

The orang-outang is an inhabitant of Cochin-China, Borneo, Malacca, Sumatra, and several of the larger islands of the Indian Archipelago. He is next in order to the chimpansé in his resemblance, in external conformation, to the human species, and is endowed with considerable intelligence. He lives in remote situations, avoiding man, and is, consequently, rarely seen in a full-grown state.

The orang-outang which was in Holland in 1776 most commonly walked on all fours, like other apes; but she could also walk erect. When, however, she assumed this posture, her feet were not usually extended like those of a man, but the toes were curved beneath, in such a manner that she rested chiefly on the exterior sides of the feet.

One morning she escaped from her chain, and was seen to ascend with wonderful agility the beams and oblique rafters of the building. With some trouble, she was retaken, and very extraordinary muscular powers were on this occasion remarked in

the animal. The efforts of four men were found necessary in order to secure her. Two of them seized her by the legs, and a third by the head, whilst the other fastened the collar round her body. During the time she was at liberty, among other pranks, she had taken a bottle of Malaga wine, which she drank to the last drop, and then set the bottle again in its place.

She ate readily of any kind of food which was presented to her; but her chief sustenance was bread, roots, and fruit. She was particularly fond of carrots, strawberries, aromatic plants, and roots of parsley. She also ate meat, boiled and roasted, as well as fish, and was fond of eggs, the shell of which she broke with her teeth, and then emptied by sucking out the contents. If strawberries were presented to her on a plate, she would pick them up, one by one, with a fork, and put them into her mouth, holding at the same time the plate in the other hand. Her usual drink was water; but she also would drink very eagerly all sorts of wine, and of Malaga, in particular, she was very fond. Whilst she was on ship-board, she ran freely about the vessel, played with the sailors, and would go like them into the kitchen for her mess. When, at the approach of night, she was about to lie down, she would prepare the bed on which she slept, by shaking well the hay, and putting it in proper order; and, lastly, would cover herself up snugly in the quilt. One day, on noticing the padlock of her chain opened with a key, and shut again, she seized a little bit of stick, and putting it into the keyhole, turned it about in all directions, endeavoring to open it.

When this animal first arrived in Holland, she was only two feet and a half high, and was almost entirely free from hair on any part of her body, except her back and arms; but, on the approach of winter, she became thickly covered all over, and the hair on her back was at least six inches long, of a chestnut color, except the face and paws, which were somewhat of a reddish bronze color. This interesting brute died, after having been seven months in Holland.

Buffon, who saw and described this individual, says he has seen it give its hand to show the company to the door; it would sit at table, unfold its napkin, wipe its lips, make use of the spoon and fork to convey the victuals to its mouth, pour out its drink into a glass, touch glasses when invited, take a cup and saucer and lay them on the table, put in sugar, pour out its tea, leave

it to cool before drinking; and all this without any other instigation than the signs or commands of its master, and often of its own accord.

M. Le Compte saw an orang-outang in the Straits of Malacca, all the actions of which were so expressive and lively, that a dumb person could scarcely have rendered himself better understood. He was kind and gentle, exhibiting great affection for all those from whom he received any attention. One thing was very remarkable, that, like a child, he would frequently make a stamping noise with his feet, for joy or anger.

His agility was astonishing. He would run about with the greatest ease and security among the rigging of the ship, vaulting from rope to rope, and playing a thousand amusing pranks, as if he had pleasure in exhibiting his feats before the company. Sometimes, suspended by one arm, he would poise himself, and then suddenly turn round upon a rope, with nearly as much quickness as a wheel. He would sometimes slide down a rope, and again ascend, with astonishing rapidity. There was no posture which this animal was incapable of imitating, nor any motion that he could not perform. He has been frequently known to fling himself from one rope to another at a distance of more than thirty feet; evincing in all his feats great muscular strength.

Père Carbasson brought up an orang-outang, which became so fond of him, that wherever he went it was desirous of bearing him company. Whenever, therefore, he had to perform the service of his church, he was under the necessity of shutting it up in his room. Once, however, the animal escaped, and followed the father to the church; where, silently mounting the sounding-board, above the pulpit, he lay perfectly still till the sermon commenced. He then crept to the edge, and overlooking the preacher, imitated all his gestures in so grotesque a manner, that the whole congregation, unable to suppress their feelings, became convulsed with laughter. The father, surprised and confounded at this unusual conduct on the part of his congregation, severely rebuked them for their irreverence. The reproof had no effect in suppressing their excitement, which gave warmth to the preacher, and he redoubled his reproof, both in words and action, which the orang-outang imitated to a nicety, and increased their merriment. A friend of Carbasson at length left his seat, and, stepping up to him, intimated the cause of their

improper conduct; and such was the demeanor of the animal, that it was with the utmost difficulty he could himself command his gravity, when he ordered the servants of the church to take him away.

Gemelli Carreri, in his voyage round the world, relates a circumstance concerning the orang-outang, in its wild state, which is indicative of very considerable powers, both of reflection and invention. When the fruits of the mountains are exhausted, they will frequently descend to the sea-coast, where they feed on various species of shell-fish, but, in particular, on a large sort of oyster, which commonly lies open on the shore. "Fearful," he says, "of putting in their paws, lest the oyster should close and crush them, they insert a stone as a wedge within the shell; this prevents it from shutting, and they then drag out their prey, and devour it at their leisure." Milo, of old, might have saved his life, had he been only half as wise.

The gibbon is distinguished by the great length of its arms, which reach to the ground, when the animal is standing upright. Its face is flat, tawny, and greatly resembling that of man, surrounded by a circle of gray hairs, which increases the singularity of its aspect. Its eyes are large and deep sunk, ears round and naked, much like those of the human race. The body is covered all over, except the hinder parts, with black rough hair. It has no tail. The gibbon is of a mild and tractable disposition, and feeds on fruits, leaves, and the bark of certain trees. It is a native of the East Indies, and common in Sumatra, Molluccas, and the coast of Coromandel. It varies in size, from three to four feet in height.

The famous Tavernier tells us, that returning from Agra with the English president, to Surat, they passed within four or five leagues of Amenabad, through a little forest of mangoes. "We saw here," says he, "a vast number of very large apes, male and female, many of the latter having their young in their arms. We were each of us in our coaches; and the English president stopped his, to tell me that he had a very fine new gun, and knowing that I was a good marksman, desired me to try it, by shooting one of the apes. One of my servants, who was a native of the country, made a sign to me not to do it; and I did all that was in my power to dissuade the gentleman from his design, but to no purpose; for he immediately levelled his piece, and shot a she ape, who fell through

the branches of the tree on which she was sitting, her young ones tumbling at the same time out of her arms upon the ground. We presently saw that happen which my servant apprehended, for all the apes, to the number of sixty, came immediately down from the trees, and attacked the president's coach with such fury, that they must infallibly have destroyed him, if all who were present had not flown to his relief, and, by drawing up the windows, and posting all the servants about the coach, protected him from their resentment. I must confess I was not a little afraid, though they did not offer to meddle with me, because they were very large, and of incredible strength; and their fury was so great, that they pursued the president's coach nearly three leagues."

Bindrabund, a town of Agra, in India, is in high estimation with the pious Hindoos, who resort to it from the most remote parts of the empire, on account of its being the favorite residence of the god Krishna. The town is embosomed in groves of trees, which, according to the account of Major Thorn, are the residence of innumerable apes, whose propensity to mischief is increased by the religious respect paid to them in honor of Hunaman, a divinity of the Hindoo mythology, wherein he is characterized under the form of an ape. In consequence of this degrading superstition, such numbers of these animals are supported by the voluntary contributions of pilgrims, that no one dares to resist or ill-treat them. Hence, access to the town is often difficult; for, should one of the apes take an antipathy against any unhappy traveller, he is sure to be assailed by the whole community, who follow him with all the missile-weapons they can collect, such as pieces of bamboo, stones, and dirt, making at the same time a most hideous howling. Of the danger attending a rencounter with enemies of this description, a melancholy instance occurred in the year 1808. Two young cavalry officers, belonging to the Bengal army, having occasion to pass that way, were attacked by a body of apes, at whom one of the gentlemen inadvertently fired. The alarm instantly drew the whole body, with the fakeers, out of the place, with so much fury, that the officers, though mounted upon elephants, were compelled to seek their safety in flight; and, in endeavoring to pass the Jumna, they both perished.

A striking instance of the audacity of the ape in attacking the human species, is related by M. Mollien, in his *Travels in Africa*. A woman going with millet and

milk to a vessel from St. Louis, which had been stopped before a village in the country of Golam, was attacked by a troop of apes, from three to four feet high. They first threw stones at her, on which she began to run away; they then ran after her, and, having caught her, they commenced beating her with sticks, until she let go what she was carrying. On returning to the village, she related her adventure to the principal inhabitants, who mounted their horses, and, followed by their dogs, went to the place which served as a retreat to this troop of apes. They fired at them, killed ten, and wounded others, which were brought to them by the dogs. Several negroes were severely wounded in this encounter, either by the stones hurled at them by the apes, or by their bites. The females, especially, were most furious in revenging the death of their young ones, which they carried in their arms.

D'Obsonville, speaking of the sacred haunts of apes in different parts of India, says, that in the course of his travels through that country, he occasionally went into the ancient temples, in order to rest himself. He noticed, always, that several of the apes, which abounded there, first observed him attentively, then looked inquisitively at the food which he was about to take, betraying, by their features and gestures, the great desire which they felt to partake of it with him.

In order to amuse himself upon such occasions, he was generally provided with a quantity of dried pease; of these he first scattered some on the side where the leader stood, (for, according to his account, the baboons always obey some particular one as their leader,) upon which the animal gradually approached nearer, and gathered them eagerly up. He then held out a handful to the animal; and, as they seldom see any person who harbors hostile intentions against them, the baboon ventured slowly to approach, cautiously watching, as it seemed, lest any trick might be played on him. At length, becoming bolder, he laid hold with one of his paws of the thumb of the hand in which the pease were held out to him, while with the other he carried them to his mouth, keeping his eyes all the while fixed upon those of M. d'Obsonville. "If I happened to laugh," he observes, "or to move myself, he immediately gave over eating, worked his lips, and made a kind of growling noise, the meaning of which was rendered very intelligible to me by his long canine teeth, which he occasionally exhib-

ited. If I threw some of the pease to a distance from him, he sometimes seemed pleased to see other apes pick them up; though, at other times, he grumbled at it, and attacked those who approached too near to me. The noise which he made, and the apprehensions he showed, though they might perhaps proceed, in some measure, from his own greediness, evidently proved, however, that he feared I might take advantage of their weakness, and so make them prisoners. I also observed, that those whom he suffered to approach the nearest to me, were always the largest and strongest of the males; the young and the females he always obliged to keep at a considerable distance from me.

It was with much delight that M. d'Obsonville witnessed the care and tenderness which the female apes evinced towards their young, in a completely wild state. They watched them with maternal affection, and at the same time kept them under great subordination. He saw them suckle their young, caress them, clean them of the vermin they had about them, and, after putting them on the ground, watch their sports with great apparent satisfaction. The little ones threw each other down, chased one another, and gambled like little children. When any of them were guilty of a malicious trick, the mother laid hold of the aggressor by the tail with one of her paws, and with the other boxed his ears. When she quit- ted her hold, some of them ran off to a distance; and when they found themselves out of danger, they approached again, with suppliant gestures, although they were soon again guilty of similar misbehavior.

Some years ago, Mr. Rutter, doing duty at the castle of Cape Town, kept a tame baboon for his amusement. One evening, it broke its chain, unknown to him. In the night, climbing up into the belfry, it began to play with and ring the bell. Immediately the whole place was in an uproar, some great danger being apprehended. Many thought that the castle was on fire; others, that an enemy had entered the bay, and the soldiers began actually to turn out, when it was discovered that the baboon had occasioned the disturbance. On the following morning a court-martial was summoned, when Cape justice decided that, whereas Mr. Rutter's baboon had unnecessarily put the castle into alarm, the master should receive fifty lashes. Mr. Rutter, however, found means to evade the punishment.

The following circumstance is truly characteristic of the imitative powers of

the baboon:—The army of Alexander the Great marched, in complete battle-array, into a country inhabited by great numbers of baboons, and encamped there for the night. The next morning, when the army was about to proceed on its march, the soldiers saw, at some distance, an enormous number of baboons, drawn up in rank and file, like a small army, with such regularity, that the Macedonians, who could have no idea of such a manœuvre, imagined, at first, that it was the enemy drawn up to receive them.

When young, the mandrill has sometimes been known to evince attachment to man, and to exhibit feelings of tenderness to those with whom he is acquainted; but when he approaches the adult state, all these forsake him, and he becomes fretful, capricious and wicked. When irritated, he manifests a horrid fierceness, and utters a hideous cry, which has somewhat the sound of the lion's roar, but more approaching a grunt. He inhabits the Gold Coast, and various districts of Africa. He lives on fruits and roots; and, in a domesticated state, eats bread freely. Mr. Brown, author of *Anecdotes of Quadrupeds*, says, "I lately inspected a fine specimen of this animal in the menagerie of Mr. Wombwell, in London, which, although tolerably tame, was not to be trusted. On one occasion, when Mr. Wombwell was showing me the consistence of the callosity on his nose, I happened to put my face too near the bars of his cage, when he forced his hands suddenly through them, and had nearly deprived me of one of my eyes." This animal was fond of carrots, fruits, potatoes, and bread; and was very partial to nuts, which he cracked. He liked fermented liquors, and ginger-beer was a favorite beverage with him.

The following account is given by Lade:—"We traversed a great mountain, in the neighborhood of the Cape of Good Hope, and amused ourselves with hunting large apes, which are very numerous in that place. I can neither describe all the arts practised by these animals, nor the nimbleness and impudence with which they returned, after being pursued by us. Sometimes they allowed us to approach so near, that I was almost certain of seizing them. But when I made the attempt, they sprang, at a single leap, ten paces from me, and mounted trees with equal agility, from whence they looked at us with great indifference, and seemed to derive pleasure from our astonishment. Some of them

were so large, that, if our interpreter had not assured us they were neither ferocious nor dangerous, our number would not have appeared sufficient to protect us from their attacks. As it could serve no purpose to kill them, we did not use our guns. But the captain levelled his piece at a very large one, that had rested on the top of a tree, after having fatigued us a long time in pursuing him. This kind of menace, of which the animal perhaps recollected his having sometimes seen the consequences, terrified him to such a degree, that he fell down motionless at our feet, and we had no difficulty in seizing him; but when he recovered from his stupor, it required all our dexterity and efforts to keep him. We tied his paws together, but he bit so furiously, that we were under the necessity of binding our handkerchiefs over his head."

Le Vaillant had a dog-faced baboon with him, upon his expedition through the southern part of Africa, to which he gave the name of Kees. This animal was of great service to him; for he was a better sentinel than any of his dogs, and often gave him warning of the approach of beasts of prey, when the dogs seemed to know nothing of the matter. "I made him," says Le Vaillant, "my taster. Whenever we found fruits or roots with which my Hottentots were unacquainted, we did not touch them till Kees had tasted of them. If he threw them away, we concluded that they were either of a disagreeable flavor, or of a pernicious quality, and left them untasted. The ape possesses a very peculiar property, wherein he differs greatly from other animals, and resembles man,—namely, that he is, by nature, equally gluttonous and inquisitive. Without necessity and without appetite, he tastes of everything that falls in his way, or that is given to him. But Kees had a still more valuable quality,—he was an excellent sentinel; for, whether by day or night, he immediately sprang up on the slightest appearance of danger. By his cry, and the symptoms of fear which he exhibited, we were always apprized of the approach of an enemy, even though the dogs perceived nothing of it. The latter, at length, learned to rely upon him with such confidence that they slept on in perfect tranquillity.

"I often took Kees with me when I went a hunting; and when he saw me preparing for sport, he exhibited the most lively demonstrations of joy. On the way, he would climb into the trees, to look for gum, of which he was very fond. Sometimes he

discovered to me honey, deposited in the clefts of rocks, or hollow trees. But if he happened to have met with neither honey nor gum, and his appetite had become sharp by his running about, I always witnessed a very ludicrous scene. In those cases, he looked for roots, which he ate with great greediness, especially a particular kind, which, to his cost, I also found to be very well tasted and refreshing, and therefore insisted upon sharing with him. But Kees was no fool. As soon as he found such a root, and I was not near enough to seize upon my share of it, he devoured it in the greatest haste, keeping his eyes all the while riveted on me. He accurately measured the distance I had to pass, before I could get to him; and I was sure of coming too late. Sometimes, however, when he had made a mistake in his calculation, and I came upon him sooner than he expected, he endeavored to hide the root, in which case I compelled him, by a box on the ear, to give me up my share. But this treatment caused no malice between us; we remained as good friends as ever.

"In order to draw these roots out of the ground, he employed a very ingenious method, which afforded me much amusement. He laid hold of the herbage with his teeth, stemmed his fore feet against the ground, and drew back his head, which gradually pulled out the root. But if this expedient, for which he employed his whole strength, did not succeed, he laid hold of the leaves as before, as close to the ground as possible, and then threw himself heels over head, which gave such a concussion to the root, that it never failed to come out."

The following is related by the Boston Transcript, December, 1848. "A singular drama was lately witnessed by the crew of a French sloop-of-war, recently returned from a voyage to the seas of India. A dozen monkeys had been put on board, and tied on deck, where they delighted the old tars from morning till night with their frolics and gambols. Some, however, discontented with the short space allotted to them, broke loose from their chains, invaded the captain's cabin, jumped over chairs and tables, spilled the ink on official documents, and behaved in such an *inconsiderate* manner that their death was resolved upon, and the warrant signed on the spot.

"The order for throwing the poor innocent victims overboard was received with general sadness on the forward deck. The old sailors, after a long consultation, came to the conclusion that a raft might be built,

upon which the poor creatures might, at least, find one chance of salvation. All hands were soon at work, and the raft completed; a small mast was made fast to it, and a sail hoisted in the direction of the current. A good supply of biscuits and crackers and a cask of water were put on board, and the twelve unfortunate outlaws were abandoned to their unhappy fate. We have been told, and we willingly believe, that the old sailors were moved even to tears; and, waving their hats, remained on deck, watching with anxious solicitude the frail embarkation, until it was out of sight and disappeared towards the land, where they hoped it might go ashore on some neighboring coast."

A late English traveller in India relates the following. "I was strolling through a wood, with my gun on my shoulders, my thoughts all centred in Europe, when I heard a curious noise in a tree above me. I looked up, and found that the sounds proceeded from a white monkey, who skipped from branch to branch, chattering with delight at beholding a 'fellow-creature,' for so he decidedly seemed to consider me. For a few moments I took no notice of his antics, and walked quietly along, till suddenly a large branch fell at my feet, narrowly escaping my head. I again paused, and found that the missile had been dropped by my talkative friend. Without consideration, I instantly turned round and fired at him. The report had scarcely sounded, when I heard the most piercing, the most distressing cry, that ever reached my ears. An agonized shriek, like that of a young infant, burst from the little creature that I had wounded. It was within thirty paces of me. I could see the wretched animal, already stained with blood, point to its wound, and again hear its dreadful moan.

"The agony of a hare is harrowing, and I have seen a young sportsman turn pale on hearing it. The present cry was, however, more distressing. I turned round, and endeavored to hurry away. This, however, I found no easy task; for, as I moved forward, the unhappy creature followed me, springing as well as he could from bough to bough, uttering a low, wailing moan, and pointing at the same time to the spot whence the blood trickled. Then, regarding me steadily and mournfully in the face, it seemed to reproach me with my wanton cruelty. I hastened on, but still it pursued me. Never in my life did I feel so much for a dumb animal; never did I so keenly repent an act of uncalled-for barbarity.

"Determined not to allow the poor monkey thus to linger in torture, and at once to end the annoying scene, I suddenly came to a halt; and lowering my gun, which was only single-barrelled, I was about to reload it, for the purpose of despatching the maimed creature, when, springing from a tree, it ran up to within a dozen paces of me, and began to cry so piteously, and roll itself in agony, occasionally picking up earth, with which it attempted to stanch the blood, by stuffing it into the wound, that, in spite of my resolution, when I fired, I was so nervous, I almost missed my aim, inflicting another wound, which broke the animal's leg, but nothing more. Again its piercing shriek rang in my ears. Horrified beyond endurance, I threw down my gun, and actually fled.

"In about half an hour, I returned, for

the purpose of getting my gun, fully expecting that the poor animal had left the spot. What, then, was my surprise, to find a crowd of monkeys surrounding the wretched sufferer, and busily employed in tearing open its wounds! A shout drove them all away, except the dying animal. I advanced. The little creature was rolling in agony. I took up my gun, which lay beside him, and fancied he cast one look of supplication on me—one prayer to be relieved from his misery. I did not hesitate; with one blow of the butt-end, I dashed out his brains. Then, turning round, I slowly returned to my quarters, more profoundly dispirited than I had felt for many months.—Take my advice, reader; if you must live in India, never shoot a monkey."

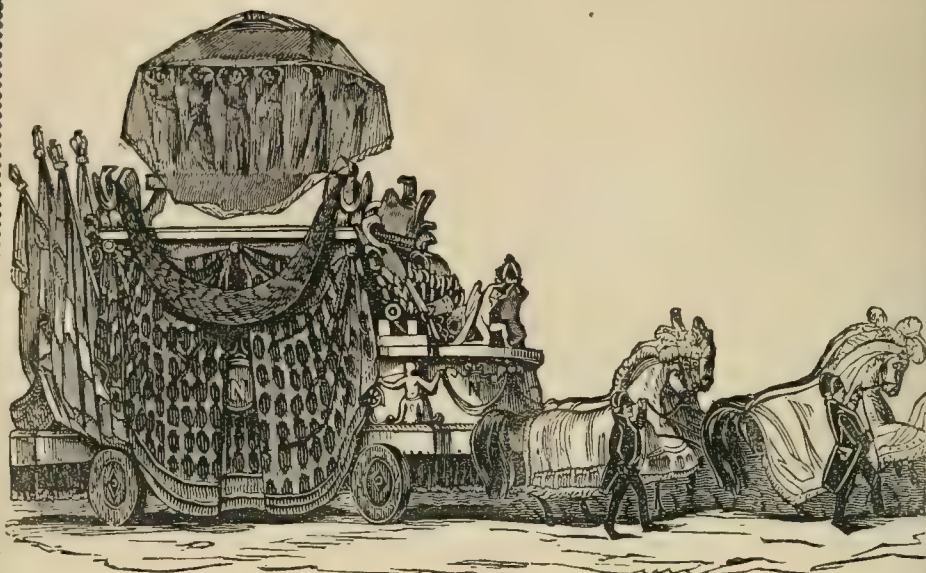


THE BANANA.

The banana tree is a kind of palm, found in hot climates. It is common in tropical countries, and we frequently see the fruit in our markets. When this is cut in slices, dried in the sun, and pounded, it produces a mealy substance that answers the purpose of bread. The banana is also eaten without cooking, when ripe, and is esteemed

very delicious. The Spaniards always cut the fruit lengthwise, for they have a superstitious dread of cutting it across, because the pieces then have a resemblance to the cross on which Christ was crucified.

The fruit of the banana tree is almost as large as a cucumber; the leaves are five or six feet long and a foot wide.



NAPOLEON'S LAST FUNERAL.

Of all the great and remarkable men of modern times, Napoleon Bonaparte was the most wonderful. He was a son of a lawyer of Corsica, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, belonging to France. From a humble station he rose to be the Emperor of France, and the greatest general of modern times. He hurled kings from their thrones, and put others in their places. He dismembered empires, and created new ones. He made the whole earth ring with his mighty deeds. But one thing he could not do—he could not conquer himself. His ambition led him on from one step of injustice to another, till the embattled armies of Europe appeared in the field against him. He was defeated, dethroned, and taken on board a British ship to the rocky and lonely island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

After being entombed for almost twenty years, the King of the French, Louis Philippe, sent out a ship to bring back his body to France, to be reëntombed in the capital of the empire of which he once swayed the sceptre.

The body of the emperor was found in the earth at St. Helena, where it had been deposited in a tomb of very strong and compact masonry, so that although the workmen began at noon, it was ten o'clock at night before they were able to reach the body. It was enclosed in three coffins, two of mahogany and one of lead, all of which were found in a perfect state, though nearly twenty years had elapsed since they had been laid in the earth.

It is difficult to describe with what anx-

ety, with what emotions, those who were present waited for the moment which was to expose to them all that death had left of Napoleon. Notwithstanding the singular state of preservation of the tomb and coffins, they could scarcely hope to find anything but some misshapen remains of the least perishable parts of the costume to evidence the identity. But when, by the hand of Dr. Guillard, the satin sheet over the body was raised, an indescribable feeling of surprise and affection was expressed by the spectators, most of whom burst into tears. The emperor himself was before their eyes! The features of his face, though changed, were perfectly recognized—the hands perfectly beautiful—his well-known costume had suffered but little, and the colors were easily distinguished—the epaulets, the decorations, and the hat, seemed to be entirely preserved from decay—the attitude itself was full of ease; and but for the fragments of the satin lining, which covered as with a fine gauze several parts of the uniform, they might have believed that they saw before them Napoleon still extended on a bed of state. General Bertrand and M. Marchand, who were present at the interment, quickly pointed out the different articles which each had deposited in the coffin, and in the precise position which they had previously described. It was even remarked that the left hand, which General Bertrand had taken to kiss for the last time before the coffin was closed up, still remained slightly raised.

The body was now placed in a new leaden coffin or sarcophagus, sent out from France for the purpose, and conveyed with appropriate ceremonies on board a French man-of-war, which immediately sailed for Cherbourg. Great preparations were made in France for its reception. On the arrival of the ship at Cherbourg, a steamboat was ready to convey it up the Seine to Paris. A great number of steamboats and vessels of all sorts were collected together, forming a numerous fleet, under convoy of which the corpse was transported up the river, stopping occasionally at the cities and towns on the way, to allow the inhabitants the opportunity of gratifying their curiosity and displaying their enthusiasm, by paying homage to the remains of the great soldier and chieftain of the French empire. The crowds that assembled all along the banks of the river were immense. The military turned out by hundreds and thousands. All sorts of pageantry, exhibition, and pompous show — consisting of triumphal arches, pyramids, bridges, columns, and other fanciful and imposing devices — contributed to give effect to the solemnities.

On the fourteenth of December, 1840, the procession reached St. Germain, a place within a few miles of Paris. The crowd of spectators which had thronged to the spot from Paris was so immense, that it was impossible to proceed and land the body till the middle of the next day. Two battalions of troops were stationed on the banks of the river; and the stream was covered with vessels decked with laurels and wreaths of *immortelles*, a bright, unfading, yellow flower, very much in use among the French on funeral occasions.

At the great bridge of Neuilly, three or four miles from Paris, an immense rostral column had been prepared, surmounted by a ball or globe, representing the world, and six feet in diameter. This was crowned by a huge eagle; but owing to the intense cold of the weather, the design was not wholly completed. On the base of this column was the following inscription, containing the last request of Napoleon: "*I wish my ashes to repose on the banks of the Seine.*" A wharf had been built at this place for the express purpose of landing the coffin, and here the body of Napoleon first touched the soil of France. At the extremity of the wharf a Grecian temple, one hundred feet in height, was erected; and at the end of the bridge of Neuilly was a colossal statue of the Empress Josephine.

From Paris to Neuilly there extends a

beautiful broad avenue, ornamented with rows of trees and handsome buildings. Along this road the population of the capital began to throng in immense multitudes before daylight the next morning. It was computed that five hundred thousand persons crowded into this avenue on the morning of the landing of the body. The troops of the National Guard were drawn up on the bank of the river; prayers were said over the corpse, and the coffin was borne to the land by twenty-four sailors. The artillery fired a salute of twenty-one rounds, and the multitudes that thronged the banks of the river rent the air with their shouts. The body was then placed in a magnificent *catafalque* or funeral car, twenty-five feet in length, with gilt wheels, and decorated with golden eagles. On the car was a pedestal eighteen feet long and seven feet high, richly ornamented and hung with gold and purple cloth. On this pedestal stood fourteen *cariatides* or columnar human figures of colossal size, supporting with their heads and hands an immense golden shield. The coffin was laid on this shield. On the coffin was placed a rich cushion, sustaining the sceptre, the hand of justice, and the imperial crown, studded with jewels. The whole formed a structure fifty feet in height, and was drawn by sixteen black horses, richly caparisoned after the manner of the middle ages.

The procession then took up its march for Paris. In the procession was the war-horse of Napoleon, and five hundred sailors who accompanied the corpse from St. Helena. The whole avenue to Paris was lined with troops. Round the great triumphal arch at the entrance of the city, were lofty masts bearing tri-colored pennants surrounded with black crape, and exhibiting each the name of some one of the armies of the Republic or the Empire, as "The Army of the Rhine" — "The Army of Italy," &c. On entering the city, the crowd was so immense that the procession had great difficulty in forcing its way onward. The number of spectators was estimated at 800,000. This is equal to the whole population of Paris; yet when we take into the account the great numbers that resorted to the capital from all parts of the kingdom to witness so grand and interesting a ceremony, this estimate does not appear very improbable.

The place destined for the reception of Napoleon's body was the Hotel des Invalides, a spacious edifice erected by Louis XIV., and which is one of the finest and most interesting buildings in Paris. It is beautifully situated on the river Seine,

with a spacious esplanade in front. In the chapel of this building, preparations had been made for the funeral service over the body. The walls were hung with black draperies bordered with silver, and large lustres were placed between the pillars, contrasting their brilliant lights with the dark draperies around them. The pillars were ornamented with gilded trophies, with the names of Napoleon's victories, Marengo, Austerlitz, Wagram, &c. The galleries above, thronged with countless multitudes of spectators, were also hung with black, with silver and gold emblems, laurels, and golden letters commemorating the principal acts of the emperor's life. Above were hung an immense number of standards, taken from the enemy in different battles. In front of the altar was erected a tomb, standing on pillars and surmounted by an eagle. This structure was of gilt wood, and only temporary; it will soon be replaced by one of marble.

Here were assembled the king, the royal family, and the chief personages of the court, the Archbishop of Paris and other dignitaries of the church, and a great number of generals and veterans of Napoleon's wars. At two o'clock the procession arrived, and the body of Napoleon was brought into the chapel. This was the most impressive part of the whole ceremony. The steps leading to the choir were lined on both sides by the

military and the veteran invalids, so many of whom had fought under the deceased emperor. The whole of the aisle was filled with troops, and the whole body of the clergy stood in religious silence, waiting to perform the last offices of religion. The drums rolled, the cannons roared, and the muffled drums announced the approach of the body. At the sight of the coffin, surmounted with the imperial crown of Napoleon, the whole body of spectators appeared to be struck by a sudden thrill. Every one rose up and bent forward, but not a word was uttered; a religious silence and awe pervaded the whole multitude!

Mass was then said over the body according to the forms of the Roman Catholic religion, after which Mozart's celebrated requiem was sung by a choir of musicians. The coffin was then sprinkled with holy water by the Archbishop, and the ceremony concluded. The crowd remained long in the chapel, to satiate their curiosity by gazing on the splendid decorations of the place and the long vista of funeral pomp. At length the military succeeded in clearing the chapel of the throngs of spectators; the people dispersed; and the body of Napoleon lay once more in the silence of the tomb!

A magnificent sarcophagus is being erected over the place where the body is deposited, in the Hotel des Invalides, and will soon be completed, (1848.)



GAZA.

THIS city is often mentioned in the Bible, and is particularly noted for the feats which Samson performed there, in carrying off its gates, and in pulling down the temple of Dagon, upon which occasion he lost his life.

(See Judges chap. xvi.) It is situated about forty-five miles south-west of Jerusalem, and not far from the Mediterranean Sea. The high road from Syria, and other eastern countries, to Egypt, passes through it: it

has therefore been often taken in the wars that have been waged in these regions.

When Alexander, the Macedonian conqueror, made his famous expedition against Cyrus, he besieged Gaza, which was in his route. It made an obstinate resistance of five months; but it was at last taken by storm, its brave defenders were slaughtered at their posts; their wives and children were sold as slaves; and the city was repopled with inhabitants drawn from the surrounding country.

The crusaders found it in ruins, but they

erected a castle here, and intrusted it to the Knights Templars. From that time, it began to revive; it soon passed into the hands of the Saracens, and then to the Turks, who still hold it. Dr. Robinson, a very learned American minister, has lately visited the place. He says there are now fifteen or sixteen thousand people there, which makes it a larger city than Jerusalem. He says the city is built upon a small hill, and bears few marks of its former greatness. Its walls have entirely disappeared, and most of the houses are miserable mud huts.



CITY OF ANCIENT BABYLON.

AMONG the most wonderful things handed down to us by history, is the account of the ancient city of Babylon, which is so often mentioned in the Bible, and the remains of which astonish the traveller at the present day. The most particular description we have of it is furnished by the Greek historian, Herodotus, who visited it about four hundred and fifty years before Christ.

He says that it was situated in a great plain, the river Euphrates running through it from north to south.

Its form was square; each side measured fifteen miles, and the whole circuit sixty miles. It was surrounded with walls, three hundred and fifty feet high and eighty-seven feet thick. Upon these walls were two hundred and fifty towers. The entrance to the city was by one hundred gates of brass.

Without the wall, there was a deep ditch around the city, filled with water.

Upon the tops of the walls, there were buildings on each side containing one room each. Between these there was space to drive a chariot with horses. The walls were built of bricks cemented together by bitumen. At every thirty layers of bricks, there was a layer of reeds, to give the fabric strength. The engraving at the head of this article is intended to give some idea of the form of this mighty city, as described by Herodotus.

The streets in the city were straight, the houses being four or five stories high. The temple of Belus was of amazing magnitude, being nearly as large as the great pyramid of Gizeh. It was a regular square, each side measuring six hundred feet. It con-

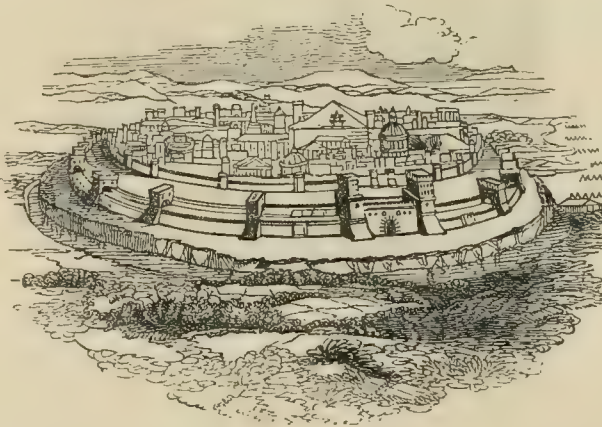
sisted of eight towers, one above another, and was of immense height. Beside this, there was a magnificent palace, and connected with it were hanging gardens of great extent.

The history of Babylonia goes back to a period of high antiquity. Its founders were among the earliest nations that were formed upon the earth, and they appear to have reached a certain degree of science and civilization, nearly two thousand years before Christ. Nimrod is mentioned in the Bible as the founder of this empire, of which Babylon was the capital. Here the kings of Assyria held their court, and displayed a magnificence, the accounts of which strike us with wonder. Here many of the arts were carried to great perfection, particularly the manufacture of cotton, linen and silk.

Babylon reached its magnificence through the efforts of several succeeding sovereigns. But Semiramis, the wife of Ninus, is said to have been its founder. In the year 538

B. C. it was taken by Cyrus, King of Persia, who made it his winter residence. At this place, Alexander, who had conquered Persia, died, 323 B. C.

The ruins of this wonderful city are to be seen about forty-eight miles south of the present city of Bagdat. Its prodigious walls have entirely disappeared, and it is not easy to trace even the outline of this once mighty metropolis. The remains consist of heaps of rubbish, principally bricks. It does not appear that the architecture of the Babylonians had reached a high degree of refinement. Its chief characteristic was colossal dimensions. The remains of the temple of Belus are still to be distinguished, and consist of a heap of ruins about one hundred and twenty feet in height. This complete destruction of Babylon, and the desolation which presides over the scene, is regarded as a terrific fulfilment of the denunciations uttered against it by the prophets, as recorded in the Bible.



WALLED CITIES.

IN ancient times, it was the custom to surround cities with very high walls of stone. This was rendered necessary, by the habit that then prevailed among nations, of making war upon each other. We, who live so peaceably, can hardly conceive of the state of things that existed in former ages. It is only by reading history, that we become informed of what appears to have been the fact, that in all countries, until within a late period, war has been the great game of nations.

As the people of ancient cities were constantly exposed to the attack of enemies, the only way to obtain security was to en-

circle themselves with high and strong walls. Sometimes these were of vast height and thickness. We are told that Thebes, a city of Egypt — the mighty ruins of which still astonish the traveller who passes that way — had a hundred gates. It is said that the walls of Babylon were near fifty feet high.

Most of the cities of Asia are still encircled with walls, and many of the cities of Europe also. London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, have none; Paris had only a low wall till lately — but the late king, Louis Philippe, caused one to be erected of greater strength. Rome, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Amsterdam, are walled cities.



THE BUCCANEERS.

THE West Indies in the sixteenth century gave rise to a singular association of adventurers, who, from an obscure origin, gradually acquired great power, became famous for their courage, enterprise and crimes, and were for a long period the terror of those regions. These were the Buccaneers, or Brethren of the Coast, called by the French "*Flibustiers*." They first attract our notice in the island of St. Domingo. After the failure of the mines in that island, it was almost utterly neglected by the Spaniards; the greater part of its flourishing cities were abandoned by the inhabitants, and the few who remained were sunk into the most enervating indolence. A number of French wanderers, who had been driven out of St. Christopher's by the Spaniards, took refuge here, and subsisted by hunting wild cattle. They met with no interruption from the

Spaniards, and their numbers were augmented by adventurers from all quarters. They derived their name of Buccaneers from the Caribs, who taught the settlers in the West Indies a curious method of preserving meat, by smoking and drying. This meat was called *boucan*, and constituted the principal food of these adventurers.

As they had no wives nor children, they generally lived two and two together for mutual assistance; and when one died, the survivor inherited the property of his companion. Without government or laws, they had certain rules and customs adapted to their situation; nor do they seem to have had any great reason to lament the want of a more perfect policy. Differences seldom arose among them, and were easily adjusted. The dress of a Buccaneer consisted of a shirt dipped in the blood of an animal just

slain; a pair of trowsers; a leather girdle, from which hung a short sabre and some Dutch knives; a hat without a rim, except a fragment before, to pull it on and off; and shoes of raw hide, without stockings. Each man had a heavy musket, and commonly a pack of twenty or thirty dogs. At daybreak, they usually set out in pursuit of wild cattle, and did not return till they had killed one apiece. The hides were sold to the Dutch and others, who resorted to the island for this trade, as soon as the Buccaneers began to be known. They possessed servants and slaves, consisting of those unfortunate persons who were decoyed to the West Indies, and sold, or who indented themselves for a certain number of years. These men were treated with great rigor. One of them telling his master that God had forbidden the practice of working on Sunday, by saying, "Six days shalt thou labor, and on the seventh thou shalt rest;" the Buccaneer replied, "And I say to thee, 'six days shalt thou kill cattle, and on the seventh shalt thou carry their hides to the shore.'"

The labor of each week was the same, till they had furnished the stipulated number of hides; for they had regular contracts with the traders. They drank nothing but water; and their *boucan* was seasoned with pimento and orange juice. After a time, they began to make inroads upon the Spanish settlements, and furnish themselves with other necessities. The Spaniards, too indolent to make effectual defence, procured soldiers from the neighboring islands, who fell upon the scattered parties of the Buccaneers, and put many of them to the sword. Seeing themselves in danger of being totally exterminated, they adopted a new organization; and by acting in concert, they laid waste the Spanish settlements with fire and sword. The Spaniards saw no other means of getting rid of these ferocious enemies than the destruction of all the wild cattle by a general chase. This had the desired effect. The Buccaneers abandoned St. Domingo, and took refuge in the small island of Tortuga.

They now found themselves absolute lords of an island, eight leagues long and two broad, mountainous and woody. The northern coast was inaccessible; the southern had an excellent harbor. So advantageous a situation soon brought to the spot a multitude of adventurers and desperadoes from every quarter; and the Buccaneers from cattle-hunters became pirates. It was at this period that they assumed the name

of the Brethren of the Coast. They made their cruises in open boats, exposed to all the inclemencies of the weather, and captured their prizes by boarding. They attacked the ships of every nation, but the Spaniards were the grand object of their hostilities; they imagined that the cruelties exercised by them upon the natives of America offered a sufficient apology for any violence that could be committed upon that nation. Accommodating their conscience to these principles of religion and equity, they never embarked upon an expedition without publicly offering up prayers for success; nor did they ever return laden with booty without solemnly thanking God for their good fortune.

In dividing their booty, they first provided a compensation for such as were maimed in the expedition. If any one had lost a right arm, he received six hundred dollars, or six slaves, and in proportion for other wounds. After this, the remainder was divided equally. The commander could claim but one share, although, when he had acquitted himself ably, they complimented him with several shares. The spoil being divided, the Buccaneers abandoned themselves to all kinds of rioting and licentiousness, till their wealth was expended, when they went to sea again. They seldom attacked any except the homeward bound European ships, as these always carried gold and silver. They commonly pursued the Spanish galleons and flota as far as the Bahama channel, and if by accident a ship separated from the rest, they instantly attacked her, and she seldom escaped. Such a terror did their very name inspire, that the Spaniards generally surrendered the moment they came to close quarters.

The Buccaneers rapidly increased in numbers and strength. They sailed in larger vessels, and carried on their enterprises with still greater audacity. Miguel de Basco captured, under the guns of Porto Belo, a Spanish galleon valued at a million of dollars. Lawrence, another Buccaneer, in a small vessel, with a few hands, was pursued and overtaken by two Spanish ships, carrying one hundred and twenty guns and seven hundred men, which he repelled. Montbars, a French gentleman, was induced to join the Buccaneers by an unconquerable antipathy to the Spaniards, which he had imbibed in his youth by reading the history of the cruelties which they had practised upon the native Americans. This antipathy rose even to frenzy. His heated imagination, which he loved to indulge, constantly

presented to him innumerable multitudes of innocent people swept away by a set of ruthless adventurers nursed among the mountains of Castile. These unhappy victims seemed to call upon him for vengeance; he longed to imbrue his hands in Spanish blood; and no sooner had war broke out between France and Spain, toward the middle of the seventeenth century, than he embarked for America, where he became one of the most formidable of the Buccaneer commanders. His audacious courage was equalled only by the pleasure he took in avenging the slaughter of the Indians by shedding torrents of Spanish blood. Humanity in him became the source of the most unfeeling barbarity.

Two Buccaneers, Lolonois and Basco, sailed for the Spanish Main, with eight vessels and six hundred and sixty men. At the entrance of the Lake of Maracaybo, they attacked and captured the castle which defended the strait. Passing up the lake, they next captured the city of Maracaybo, where they spent a fortnight in rioting and debauchery. The inhabitants had carried their most precious effects to Gibraltar, at the further end of the lake, which the Buccaneers might have taken, had they proceeded directly thither. But by delaying, they gave the Spaniards time to erect fortifications, and they defended these long enough to enable the inhabitants to transport their wealth to another place for security. Exasperated by this disappointment, the Buccaneers set fire to Gibraltar, and Maracaybo would have shared the same fate, had it not been ransomed. Besides the money which they received for sparing the city, they carried off all the crosses, pictures and bells of the churches, intending, as they said, to build a chapel at Tortuga, and consecrate this part of their spoil to sacred purposes.

Henry Morgan, an English Buccaneer, sailed on an expedition against Porto Belo, in 1668. He captured the town before the Spaniards could take any measures for its defence. The citadel held out, and the chief citizens had retired into it with their most valuable effects, and all the plate of the churches. Morgan practised a stratagem to reduce the fortress without any loss. He compelled the priests, nuns and other women, whom he had taken prisoners, to plant the scaling-ladders against the walls, from a persuasion that the gallantry and superstition of the Spaniards would not suffer them to fire upon the objects of their love and veneration. But the governor was

a sturdy and resolute soldier, and ordered his men to repulse all assailants. Morgan, therefore, found himself compelled to storm the citadel. The garrison made an obstinate defence, and great numbers of them fell, sword in hand, by the side of their commander; but the place was carried. The Buccaneers obtained plunder and ransom amounting to two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, besides a vast quantity of valuable merchandise.

The following year, Morgan made an expedition to Maracaybo. He found the place deserted, but had the good fortune to discover the wealth of the citizens, which they had secreted in the neighboring woods. He then proceeded to Gibraltar, where for many weeks he practised the most cruel tortures upon the people to extort a discovery of their treasures. These, however, were unsuccessful; and when about to depart, he found himself blockaded by three Spanish men-of-war. These he attacked, burnt two of them with a fire-ship, and defeated the other. The next year he undertook an expedition on a still greater scale. With a fleet of thirty-seven vessels and two thousand men, he made a descent upon the island of St. Catharine, which was very strongly fortified, but which was easily taken, in consequence of the cowardice of the governor, who concerted a pretended plan of defence to save his reputation, but made a secret bargain with Morgan, and allowed himself to be vanquished without bloodshed. The Buccaneers destroyed the fortifications, and took on board an immense quantity of warlike stores, which they found in the island. They now determined to attack Panama, on the opposite coast of the isthmus of Darien, and, with this view, sailed toward the river Chagres, which has its source near the Pacific.

On arriving at the mouth of this river, they found it defended by a strong fort built upon a steep rock, whose base was washed by the sea. It was garrisoned by a band of brave soldiers, under a commander of courage and abilities. They made a stout defence, and the Buccaneers would have been repulsed but for a very singular accident. Morgan, despairing of success, was about to give orders for a retreat, when an arrow shot by an Indian lodged in the eye of one of his men. Exasperated by the anguish of his wound, he drew out the arrow, wrapped the end of it in cotton, put it into his musket, and discharged it into the fort. The buildings were all of wood, with thatched roofs; and the arrow, ignited by

the discharge, struck the roof of a house and set it on fire. The garrison were so intent on defending their walls, that they did not perceive the flames till they had made great progress. A sudden panic then seized them, as they saw the fire approaching the powder magazine. Terror and confusion prevailed; every man consulted his own safety, with the exception of fifteen or twenty, who continued fighting by the side of their commander till he fell, covered with wounds. The Buccaneers having renewed the attack with the utmost vigor, they were compelled to surrender.

The marauders pursued their voyage up the river in launches, leaving a part of their men on board the fleet which remained at anchor below. They proceeded as far as Cruces, where they landed, and marched for Panama. They defeated the Spaniards in several skirmishes, and captured the city, but found it almost deserted, the inhabitants having fled to the woods. They plundered Panama at their leisure; and their savage leader fell in love with one of his female captives. As neither his character nor person were such as to inspire her with any favorable sentiments towards him, he pleaded his passion in vain. He caused her to be thrown into a dungeon, and ordered that she should be supplied with food barely sufficient to sustain life. Hoping to conquer her obstinacy by this cruel treatment, he made a long stay in Panama, till his men began to murmur at being kept inactive by such a caprice. He therefore was compelled to depart, and agreed with the Spaniards for a considerable sum to evacuate the city without committing any further damage; but after the money was paid, Panama was set on fire, whether by accident or design, is not known. The Buccaneers returned to the mouth of the Chagres with an enormous booty.

In 1683, twelve hundred Buccaneers, in six ships, under the command of Van Horn, Grammort, Godfrey, Jonqué, and De Graff, attacked Vera Cruz. Under cover of a dark night, they landed at a distance, reached the town without being discovered, and obtained complete possession of it by daybreak. The inhabitants fled to the churches, where the Buccaneers confined them, and placed barrels of gunpowder at the doors, with preparations to blow them up at the least appearance of resistance. They then pillaged the city undisturbed during three days; after which they offered to ransom their prisoners for two millions of

dollars. These unfortunate people, who had neither eaten nor drank for the whole period, gladly accepted the terms. Half the money was paid, and the remainder expected from the interior, when a fleet of seventeen ships appeared off the harbor, and a considerable body of troops showed themselves on a neighboring eminence, marching toward the town. The Buccaneers quietly retreated to their vessels, carrying off fifteen hundred slaves as an indemnity for the half of the ransom which they had lost, and compelling the inhabitants to sign a bond for the payment of it, with interest. They boldly sailed through the Spanish fleet, which let them pass without firing a gun.

The following year, the Buccaneers made their appearance in the South Sea, where they captured and pillaged fifteen or twenty towns along the coast. The Spaniards never ventured to defend themselves unless they greatly outnumbered them, and then they were commonly routed. They were so enervated by ease and luxury that they had lost all military spirit and skill, and had almost forgotten the use of arms. They were, if possible, more ignorant and cowardly than the Indians whom they trampled upon. This pusillanimity was augmented by the terrors which the name of the Buccaneers inspired. The monks had represented them as devils, cannibals, and beings destitute of the human form. As the Spaniards always fled on the approach of the enemy, they knew no other method of taking revenge than by burning or cutting in pieces the bodies of the Buccaneers which had been killed. These corpses they dug up, mangled, and exposed to mimic tortures; an exhibition of impotent and childish rage which only stimulated the ferocity of their enemies. The towns which these captured were set on fire, and the prisoners were massacred without mercy, unless both were ransomed with gold, silver or precious stones. Silver was often so common as to be despised, and they abandoned heaps of it in every quarter.

These ravages almost totally annihilated the Spanish commerce in America. Hardly a ship ventured to sea, and all communication between the different provinces was cut off. Their richest and most populous territories were laid waste, and the people hardly dared to show themselves without the walls of their towns. Cultivation was neglected, to the great distress of the inhabitants, and the Indians saw themselves partially revenged on their tyrants, whose sufferings

were drawn on them by that very gold which had stimulated them to bloodshed and oppression.

The last remarkable event in the history of the Buccaneers is the capture of Carthagena, in 1697. Twelve hundred of them, under Pointis, made themselves masters of this large, opulent and well-fortified city, where they obtained a booty of eleven millions of dollars. Had they been under the direction of an able leader, and had their object been conquest instead of plunder, they might have subjugated nearly all the West Indies, and erected an independent state. Morgan is said at one time to have entertained such a design. The war between Great Britain and France, which fol-

lowed the accession of William III., was a severe blow to the Buccaneers, who were composed chiefly of the subjects of these two powers. They turned their arms against each other, and never confederated afterwards. The treaty of Ryswick, and the accession of a French prince to the throne of Spain, completed their dispersion. Many of them turned planters, or returned to their original occupation of sailors on board merchant ships. Others, who had fast-sailing vessels, escaped into remote seas, and practised piracy there. For nearly two centuries, the Buccaneers had been a people wholly distinct in history; they at last disappeared, and left not a trace of their existence behind.



SKELETON OF A BIRD.

THE frame-work of a bird is one of the most curious and interesting things in nature; and if we examine it carefully, we cannot but admire the ingenuity and skill of its great Creator. What mechanic, save the Author of nature, could have executed a piece of mechanism so complicated, so delicate, and that yet works so admirably? Think of the rapid motion of a bird in its flight; the quick vibrations of the wings; the sudden bendings of the neck and tail; and consider that all these are effected by muscles, which operate like the ropes of a ship. How slow and difficult are the evolutions of a ship, which is one of the wonders

of human art; how swift are the evolutions of a bird, which, however, is only one among the thousand wonders of nature!

Another curious thing about the skeleton of a bird is this—all the bones are hollow and very thin, yet they are very strong. Now, why are they so thin and light? Because the bird is to fly in the air, and therefore it is necessary that his body should be as light as possible. How wonderfully the Creator seems to have foreseen all things, and to have contrived them in the best possible way to answer the purposes that he had in view!



MARTIN LUTHER.

THIS famous man was born at Eisleben, then in Saxony, but now within the limits of Prussia. His father, Hans, or John Luther, was a native of Mora, near Eisenach; he was originally a woodcutter, and in very humble circumstances. His wife often carried the wood to market on her back. On the occasion of a fair at the latter place, the parents both went thither, and on the night of their arrival, November 10, 1483, the mother gave birth to a son. This occurred on the eve of St. Martin's day, and hence the infant was called Martin. Six months after this event, the parents went to live at Mansfeld, ten miles from Eisleben, where the father pursued the business of a miner, with great success.

Young Luther was brought up in the strict habits and under the severe discipline of the age. His father was accustomed to inflict on him cruel chastisements, and his mother, for a mere trifle, whipped him till the blood came. Such was the general system of family government at that day. When sufficiently advanced, Martin Luther was sent to Eisenach, where he had access to an institution which taught the learning of the time. But he had no friends, and was obliged to procure his own bread. For this purpose, he used to go about the streets, with some of his companions as poor as himself, singing at the doors of such as would listen. He had a fine talent for music, and though he often chanted the favorite songs and ballads of the day, he also sometimes sung his own compositions.

This he was accustomed to call "bread music."

In one of his excursions, he came to the house of a respectable man, named Conrad Cotta. Before it rose some lofty trees. In the shadow of these, young Martin threw himself down, and his heart being burdened with sadness, he poured forth his feelings in a strain of plaintive melody. The wife of Conrad, attracted by the melancholy tones, came to the door, and invited the youth to enter. She then placed before him the fare her humble house afforded. The boy's gratitude, ardently expressed, touched her heart, and she invited him to come again. Thus an acquaintance began, and Luther was, after a short time, invited to take up his residence at the house, which he did; and thus, relieved from the evils of poverty, he was able to prosecute his studies. Long after, when his fame filled all Europe, these kind and efficient friends had the pleasure to reflect that the great Reformer was the hungry ballad-singer, whom they had comforted and cherished in the days of poverty.

Having spent five years at Eisenach, Luther was sent, in 1501, to the university of Erfurth, then a respectable seminary, but since suppressed. His father wished him to study law, but he had little inclination for this, and devoted himself to general literature and music, which latter he continued to cultivate through life. At the university, he showed the jovial, careless disposition, which generally marks the German student. He was, however, much struck, when one day searching for an old book in the library, to meet with a copy of the Bible. He had before thought that all the sacred writings were contained in the portions which were read in the churches. This discovery doubtless gave occasion to much reflection.

In 1505, an event occurred, which changed the current of Luther's thoughts, and gave direction to his future life. He was a lover of nature, and one day indulging his taste in this respect, he was rambling through the fields with a friend. A storm was gathering over their heads, but they continued the conversation, which had relation to some serious subject. In the mind of Luther, the pealing thunder was the type of the future judgment. He turned to speak to his companion, when, at the very instant, the latter was struck dead by a flash of lightning! Luther stood a moment in fear and awe; he then knelt by the side of his companion, and lifting his

eyes to heaven, he made a solemn vow to devote his future life to the service of God. Educated in the Catholic faith, this was equivalent to a vow that he would enter a monastery, and become a monk, which he did in 1505, in spite of his father's remonstrances.

It was in the Augustine convent of Erfurth that Luther had now taken his vows. With the ardor and sincerity of his character, he devoted himself to religious contemplation; but he did not, in the retirement of the cloister, find the peace he sought and anticipated. He was haunted by temptations, and distressed by scruples and doubts. He discovered what had not before been suggested to his mind, that, in the absence of substantial enemies found in the world, the mind may people the solitary cell with demons, which have the power as effectually to stab our peace.

In the convent Luther at last found a friend, who understood his character, and ministered to his spiritual wants. This was Staupnitz, the provincial of the order, or ecclesiastical governor of the Augustine convents in the district of Erfurth. He was an intelligent, honest, and kindhearted man, and by advice, instruction, and encouragement, cleared the mind and lightened the heart of the distracted votary.

The talents of Luther were soon appreciated, and in 1508, at the instance of Staupnitz, he was appointed a professor of philosophy in the university of Wittenberg. He here delivered lectures, which were well attended, and which were marked by a freedom of thought and manner unusual at that day. In 1510, he was sent to Italy, on business connected with the order, which laid the foundation of a great change in his views.

Luther was a sincere votary of the Catholic Church. With the simplicity of an honest mind, he supposed that he should find religion in its utmost purity at Rome, and that the pope, the head of the church, would be a fit representative of the Holy Apostle, of whom he claimed to be the successor. How was he doomed to be disappointed in these views!

On his arrival at the city of Milan, he was received into one of the convents as a guest. Here he found his brethren, instead of devoting themselves to the austerities of religion, as was the case at Wittenberg, addicted to every species of luxury. In the seclusion of their cloisters, they sat down to sumptuous tables, loaded with luscious viands, delicious fruits, and choice wines.

Sheltered from the observation of the world, they cast aside the forms and ceremonies of their order, and gave themselves up to license and indulgence. Fasts were neglected—penances despised. Luther looked on with horror, and at last, unable to restrain his emotions, broke forth in terms of reprobation of these debaucheries.

The monks, being alarmed, lest they should be exposed, caused poison to be administered to Luther;—the dose was slight, and they intended to repeat it; but, finding himself unwell in the night, he arose and set forward upon his journey. He thus unconsciously baffled his enemies, though his health suffered for a long time from the effects of the poison he had taken.

Pursuing his way chiefly on foot, Luther at last arrived at Rome. When he reached the city, his heart burning with religious veneration, he knelt down, lifted his hands to heaven, and exclaimed, "I salute thee, Holy Rome, sanctified by the blood of the martyrs!" With an eagerness that nothing could repress, he now ran from place to place, all seeming in his pious imagination to be consecrated ground.

The pope at that time was Julius II. He was a man little calculated to satisfy the views of Luther. He had arisen from an humble condition to the loftiest pitch of earthly power. Nothing could be more directly opposed to the meek spirit of Christianity than his whole soul and character. He was a subtle politician, a bold and ambitious statesman, an impetuous and determined warrior. How was Luther shocked, when he expected to hear of the pious virtues of his Holiness, to find him only spoken of for his gigantic ambition, his worldly policy, his achievements in the field, as commander of his own forces, his magnificent schemes of earthly aggrandizement, alike respecting himself and the papal see! One of his schemes of ambition was to erect a church at Rome, surpassing all others in magnificence. Accordingly, in 1506, four years before Luther's arrival, the corner-stone of St. Peter's was laid. In a few months, pushed on by the zeal of the pontiff, the walls were towering over the other churches of Rome; but this precipitation caused the enormous masses to crack, and thus the progress of the vast enterprise was retarded. It was not till long after that this edifice was finished. The expense was enormous, and it will hereafter be seen that this had a direct connection with the reformation of which Luther was the great instrument.

During his short stay at Rome, Luther beheld the pope in a religious procession. He was raised on a platform, and carried on the shoulders of priests, who deemed it a favor thus to bear the sacred representative of God on earth! His head was bowed upon his breast, in token of humility, but he was attired in the most gorgeous robes. His crown, glittering with jewels, was borne on a cushion, by the highest dignitaries. Then followed others, with fans of peacock and ostrich plumes, which they waved around the person of the pontiff, to guard it from every unhallowed mote. Then came the retinue of cardinals and bishops, with crosses, and relics, and incense, and music, and lighted tapers, and revered trophies, with all the pomp and circumstance that human ingenuity, seeking to capture the imagination, could invent. The mighty pageant swept by, "and this," said Luther, "was all I saw of religion in Rome."

He stayed but a fortnight in that city. He was disheartened and disgusted with what he saw. Rome was filled with vice of every horrid form, and every degree of enormity. He found, too, that the pope and his cardinals were mere men of the world, that the priests were generally voluptuaries, and many of them open infidels. Admitted as he was to intimacy with many of them, he found that they often made a jest and mockery of the most holy rites, and even while performing the offices of the sacrament, in a sort of by-play, turned them into ridicule, and sneered at the deluded people, who looked with reverence upon these ceremonies. He hastened back to Germany, his heart distressed, his mind bewildered, his faith shaken. It was this going to Rome, however, that laid the foundation of his subsequent career.

Having returned to Wittenberg, Luther devoted himself to his professorship, seeking peace of mind in a vigorous discharge of its duties. Staupnitz, who saw his great powers, urged him to become a doctor of divinity. Luther consented, and Frederick, Elector of Saxony, and called the Wise, being proud of him, as a native of his dominion, and an ornament of the university, paid the expenses of his inauguration.

Julius II. died February 13, 1513, and the Cardinal Jean de Medicis, under the name of Leo X., became the pope. In 1517, he authorized the sale of indulgences in Germany, as Julius II. had done in France, Poland, &c. The avowed object was to raise money to defray the expenses of the church of St. Peter's at Rome, and

to sustain the Christian League against the Turks. Very little, however, of the vast sums of money obtained, was devoted to the objects for which it was avowedly raised.

The practice of granting indulgences had existed for centuries before the time of Luther. The Romish Church, assuming to embody the power of Christ, claimed the privilege of remitting the penalty and averting the punishment, here and hereafter, of any sin committed, provided it was confessed and repented of. A penance was often imposed, as the condition of such remission and forgiveness. This penance frequently was commuted for a sum of money, given to the church. This money, in the light of penance, became one of the means and instruments by which sin was to be pardoned. From this position, the next step, the sale of indulgences, was obvious and easy. The popes and priests wanted money, and holding the consciences of men in their grasp, they easily laid them under contribution.

Leo's chief agent in the sale of indulgences was a Dominican monk, by the name of Tetzel. He was a man of high rank and station in the church, and possessed all the address, cunning, and effrontery necessary to success in such a business. Clothed with the full power of the pope, and encompassed by all the insignia of the church, his manner was lofty and his aspect imposing. He was paid eighty florins, or forty dollars a month, besides all his expenses. He was allowed a carriage and three horses. His perquisites, however, far exceeded his regular pay. His success was so great, that at the town of Freyberg, he sold indulgences to the amount of two thousand florins in two days!

To show the effrontery of the man, thus employed by the pope, we may state that he was guilty of the most abominable profligacy, and though a priest, sworn to celibacy, carried about with him two of his own children! These things, however, did not prevent the success of his traffic. When he came to a place, he went into the church and set up a cross, with the pope's arms suspended upon it. He then ascended the pulpit, and addressed the multitude who gathered to hear him.

He declared that indulgences "are the most precious and sublime gifts of God!" and that "this cross has as much efficacy as the cross of Christ!" "Draw near, and I will give you letters, duly sealed, by which even the sins you shall hereafter devise and commit shall all be forgiven

you!" "I would not exchange my privileges for those of St. Peter, in heaven; for I have saved more souls with my indulgences, than he with his sermons!" "There is no sin so great that the indulgence cannot remit it!"—"only pay largely, and the greatest crime shall be forgiven!" "Even repentance is not indispensable!"

Having thus set forth the tempting qualities of his merchandise, he would appeal to the feelings of his auditors; he would draw terrible pictures of the torments of purgatory, to which they were all exposed; and bright ones of the bliss of heaven, which they could so easily purchase. He painted the torments of those already in the fires of hell, and appealed to friends around, to know if they would not buy an indulgence for them—for they could even reach such as had already entered into judgment! "Yes," said he, "the very moment that the money clinks against the bottom of the chest, the soul escapes from purgatory, and flies free to heaven!"

Thus every art and device was adopted, to cheat the people into the purchase of these impious, corrupting, and fraudulent papers. At the present day, it would be a matter of course that such practices would be punished by confinement in the state's prison; but at that period, under the high sanction of the church, the fraud was not detected by the mass, and multitudes readily availed themselves of the opportunity to appease their consciences for past crimes, and to fortify themselves in impunity for future iniquity. It is scarcely possible to conceive of the state of darkness into which the minds of men had sunk at this period. Was it not necessary that reformation should be wrought in that church, which had brought mankind to this condition?

The people flocked in crowds to Tetzel and his coadjutors. Men and women, the young and the old, the poor, and even beggars, came—and with money, too,—for such was the eagerness to possess the proffered blessings, that all would in some way obtain the means. Close by the cross, and in the church, the seller had a counter, where he received his money and delivered the indulgences. Confession was administered to the purchaser, but this was a mere form—it was not insisted that penitence must be a condition of pardon. Kings, queens, princes, archbishops, and bishops, were to pay twenty-five ducats; abbots, counts, barons, &c., ten ducats. Thus the prices were graduated to the condition of the purchaser; and indeed special bargains

were made, suited to the ability of the applicant, and the nature of the sins he wished to expiate.*

Although the mass of the people believed in the efficacy of indulgences, and the propriety of their sale, there were many who condemned the whole traffic as a cheat. Among these was a gentleman of Saxony, who heard Tetzel at Leipsic, and was much shocked at the imposture. He went to the church, and asked him if he was authorized to pardon the sin of intention—or such as he intended to commit. Tetzel replied in the affirmative, and, after some chaffing, the gentleman paid thirty crowns for an indulgence, by which he was to be forgiven for beating one against whom he had a grudge.

Soon after this, Tetzel set out from Leipsic, and this Saxon gentleman, overtaking him in the forest of Jutterbock, gave him a severe drubbing, and carried off the box in which he had his treasures. Tetzel raised a great clamor for this act of violence, and brought an action before the judges of the district against the perpetrator. The latter, however, pleaded the indulgence, and was fully acquitted.

Luther, at this time, was professor of theology at Wittenberg, and he soon had an opportunity of seeing the effects of Tetzel's operations. Upon some persons under his spiritual charge, he enjoined penance; but they refused to submit to this, declaring that they had been released from every penalty by Tetzel. Luther having denied them absolution, because they would not submit to the prescribed penance, some of them went to Tetzel, and made complaints

* The following is a copy of an indulgence in the common form.

"Our Lord Jesus Christ have mercy on thee, N. N., and absolve thee, by the merits of his most holy sufferings! And I, in virtue of the apostolic power committed to me, absolve thee from all ecclesiastical censures, judgments, and penalties, that thou mayest have merited; and, further, from all excesses, sins, and crimes, that thou mayest have committed, however great and enormous they may be, and of whatever kind,—even though they should be reserved to our holy father the Pope, and to the Apostolic See. I efface all the stains of weakness, and all traces of the shame that thou mayest have drawn upon thyself by such actions. I remit the pains that thou wouldst have had to endure in purgatory. I receive thee again to the sacraments of the church. I hereby reincorporate thee in the communion of the saints, and restore thee to the innocence and purity of thy baptism; so that, at the moment of death, the gate of the place of torment shall be shut against thee, and the gate of the paradise of joy shall be opened unto thee. And, if thou shouldst live long, this grace continueth unchangeable, till the time of thy end.

"In the name of the Father, of the Son and of the Holy Spirit. Amen.

"The brother, John Tetzel, Commissary, hath signed this with his own hand."

of Luther. Upon this, the former threatened with punishment, here and hereafter, all those who should deny the efficiency of his indulgences.

When Luther was fully informed of the operations of Tetzel and his associates, he drew up certain themes, or propositions, setting forth his own views of the powers of the church, and denouncing the avarice, impudence, and licentiousness of the priests who went about selling indulgences and extorting money, under the pretence of making collections for the church.

Though there was nothing in these themes but what many Catholics had maintained, they assailed, in some points, especially, the favorite doctrine of infallibility, the accepted creed of that day. He, however, boldly published them, challenged reply, and defended them in his own pulpit. Multitudes gathered to hear him, and his opinions were rapidly spread over Europe.

Tetzel and his associates were greatly enraged; they formally burnt Luther's theses, and then proceeded to answer them, chiefly by assuming the supreme authority and infallibility of the pope. This injured their cause, and their reply to Luther was publicly burnt by the students of Wittenberg. Such was the beginning of the storm which shook Europe to its foundation, and finally stripped the pope of his spiritual supremacy. Yet, when Leo heard of the dispute at Wittenberg, he only said, "It is a quarrel between monks; — but brother Luther seems to be a man of parts!"

Luther's fame was rapidly extended, but as yet he had no idea of separating from the Church of Rome. In 1518, he wrote a submissive letter to the pope, in which he says, "I throw myself prostrate at your feet, most holy father: call or recall me, condemn or approve, as you please: I shall acknowledge your voice as the voice of Christ, who presides and speaks in your person."

But the pope, who had once thought so lightly of Luther's influence, was ere long seriously alarmed, and at last summoned him to appear at Rome, to be examined, within sixty days. The danger to Luther in doing this was obvious, and his friend, the Elector of Saxony, obtained permission to have his examination take place at Augsburg. Here Cardinal Cajetan, or Caietano, was commanded to examine him. Thither Luther went, accompanied by his friend Staupnitz. The cardinal required a recantation of what he had written; but this Luther refused. Warned of danger that

threatened him, he left Augsburg, and returned to Wittenberg. The pope now issued a bull, declaring that he, as Christ's vicar on earth, had power to deliver from all punishment due for sin, to those who repented and were in a state of grace, whether alive or dead. Luther now appealed from the pope to a general council of the church.

Pope Leo now commissioned a prelate, named Milnitz, to endeavor to bring Luther to a recantation. This dignity was a man of talent and skill, and in an interview with Luther, he greatly conciliated the feelings of the latter. Milnitz condemned the abuse of the sale of indulgences, threw the blame upon Tetzel and his associates, and finally induced Luther to write another submissive letter to the pope, acknowledging that he had carried his zeal too far, and promising to observe silence upon the matter in debate, if his adversaries would adhere to the same line of conduct. This letter has subjected Luther to great scandal, as a retraction of his principles; but it must be regarded only as evidence of the profound reverence with which he regarded the institution of the Church of Rome, in whose faith he had been educated, and the difficulty with which his mind burst asunder the fetters which it had thrown around him. The pope himself, at this period, wrote a kind letter to Luther, and it is probable that the breach might have been healed, had not Luther's enemies again opened the controversy.

Eckius, of Ingoldstadt, challenged Carolstadt, one of Luther's disciples, to an open discussion at Leipsic. Luther went thither himself, agreeing to take no part in the disputation. The debate attracted the great and the learned from a vast distance. Among the listeners was the celebrated Melancthon, who was determined by what he here heard to devote himself to the cause of reform.

Eckius was a man of brilliant eloquence, and seemed to have the advantage of his antagonist, after a dispute of six days. It was then agreed, by Eckius' desire, that Luther himself should enter the lists. The debate was continued for several days, and different accounts were given of the result; but Hoffman, the rector of the university of Leipsic, who had been appointed judge of the disputation, considered it to be so equally balanced, that he refused to pronounce a decision.

Luther went on to write several works, mostly questioning the lofty assumptions of the Church of Rome. He exposed the

fatuity of penance, and pilgrimage; the impiety of worshipping saints; and the abuses of the confessional; he condemned the celibacy of priests, and denounced monastic vows. Leo now assembled a congregation of cardinals, before whom Luther's works were laid for adjudication. By their advice, a bull was drawn up, in which forty-one propositions, taken from his books, were denounced as heretical; his writings were condemned to be publicly burnt, and he himself was summoned to appear at Rome, and retract his writings on pain of excommunication. Luther again appealed to a general council of the church; and publicly separated himself from the communion of the Church of Rome, by burning the pope's bull on a pile of wood, without the walls of Wittenberg, in presence of a vast multitude of people. This occurred December 10, 1520. Soon after, the pope thundered against him his bull of excommunication.

The situation of the great reformer was now one to put his moral courage to the severest test. Staupnitz, his early friend, had deserted him, and made peace with the church; Luther had written to Erasmus, of Rotterdam, who had written in behalf of reformation in the church, but that timid and irresolute scholar made him no answer. Even Spalatinus, once his ardent friend, was now seized with fear. Eckius, who had also been his friend, was, as we have seen, in open opposition to him. At the same time society was violently torn with the questions which Luther had started. While some declared in his favor, the majority, including a vast preponderance of the rich and powerful, continued, even in Germany, to oppose him. By the rigid Catholics he was looked upon with horror. No terms too harsh could be found to heap upon his name, no scandal so vile could be invented, that it did not find believers. He was withal denounced by the papal bull of excommunication, that formidable and fearful curse, which few minds in that age had the iron hardihood to withstand. He was accused in the view of millions, who would have deemed it a service worthy of heaven to have taken the life of one regarded as a disciple of the devil! The "arch-fiend," was a common title, bestowed upon him by his enemies. Yet, amid these perils, Luther stood as undaunted as the oak before the tempest; and, though the lightning fell and the thunder burst upon and around him, he met it all unscathed.

Luther had, indeed, one powerful and steadfast friend,—Frederick, the Elector

of Saxony. The pope had endeavored to persuade him to give up the dreaded and hated priest, but in vain. He now sought to accomplish his object by other means. Maximilian, the Emperor of Germany, was dead, and Charles V., King of Spain, in 1518, had been elected in his place. Leo applied to him to make an example of Luther, as an obdurate heretic. Frederick interposed, and persuaded Charles to cause him to be tried by a diet of the empire, at Worms. Having obtained the emperor's safe-conduct, Luther set forward upon his journey to that place, for his trial.

His friends trembled for the issue; every heart seemed burthened save his own. Melancthon, now his intimate friend, attended him. Luther, in the pulpit, seemed to breathe only of religion. In society, he was frank, cheerful, and engaging. He cultivated every innocent thing that could make life more agreeable. He went on his way to Worms, which many expected would prove his grave, with perfect equanimity, saying, "If it is God's will that I die, I am prepared; yet I believe that my time has not yet come."

He arrived at Worms on the sixteenth of April, 1521. On entering the town, he began singing the hymn,—*"Our God is a strong citadel,"*—and this became the inspiring song of the Reformation. Numbers of Luther's friends, who were with him, alarmed as they approached the city of Worms, deserted him; but his cheerfulness continued unchanged.

Worms was at that moment the point to which the eyes of all Europe were turned. Thither multitudes had gathered, impelled by an intense desire to see the result of the trial. The questions at issue had evidently entered deeply into the hearts of men; and now the person who had caused this mighty movement was there. And what was he? A simple monk,—a man without station, office, rank, or badge; but truth and courage had given him a power which made potentates tremble. They were as the Philistines, and he as Samson, with his arms around the pillars of the temple. With what a feeling of interest did the concourse of people look on Martin Luther that day!

He was conducted, the day after his arrival, to the diet, by the marshal of the empire. There were the cardinals and princes in their badges of office and insignia of rank. It was an august assembly, in which Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain, presided. Luther came

in, wearing a simple black gown, with a belt around his waist. He moved with a modest but tranquil step. Melancthon, Spalatinus, and other friends, were at his side. Luther was now asked if he acknowledged himself to be the author of certain books bearing his name. When they were enumerated, he said he would not deny them. "Are you ready to retract what has been condemned in these books?" was now asked. He requested time for reply;—a day was given him. The enemies of Luther now triumphed, and his friends feared for him. It was apprehended that he would shrink from the fearful ordeal. When he went to the diet, he was cheered by thousands of voices; as he returned, the enthusiasm had passed away.

The next day, Luther again appeared before the diet, and being asked if he meant to retract his writings, he replied mildly, yet firmly, in Latin, that he did not. He besought the assembly to hear with candor and judge him with fairness. He appealed to the youthful emperor, and mildly warned him against rash judgments.

When one of the assembly demanded of him a direct answer to the question whether he would recant or not,—he replied that he would retract nothing, unless it could be shown to be inconsistent with the Bible. To the Scriptures he appealed, as the word of God, and when that sustained him, he would yield nothing. "To act against my conscience," said he, "is neither safe nor honest. Here I stand,—I cannot do otherwise,—may God help me. Amen!" The latter words were pronounced in his native German, with a deep and affecting emphasis.

Although the assembly, as Catholics, disapproved of Luther's views, his noble bearing excited their respect and wonder. The Archbishop of Treves, touched with the sublimity of his conduct, paid him a visit, and sought to win him back to the church. This was, of course, in vain. Luther's friends were now filled with enthusiastic admiration, and his enemies could not withhold their respect. The decision of the diet was, of course, against him, and the emperor ordered him forthwith to leave Worms. He left it on the 26th of April.

An edict was now issued by the emperor, to go into effect as soon as his safe-conduct to Luther should expire. In this he was denounced as the "devil in the shape of a man and the dress of a monk." "All the subjects of the empire," continued the bull, "are required to seize upon him, and de-

liver him up to justice." It may well be believed that dismay now seized upon the friends of Luther. What was their horror, soon after, to hear that as he was travelling with a single attendant, towards his house, he was beset in the forest of Thuringia, dragged from his carriage, by several men in masks, and hurried away. His companion had escaped to tell the tale. Consternation reigned throughout Germany, and in the town of Wittenberg sorrow and wailing was in almost every dwelling.

But it was not long before a new work from Luther's pen was announced, and it was of a date subsequent to his alleged murder. Melancthon also received a letter from him. "Give yourself no uneasiness for me," said he; "both you and your wife may rest assured of my welfare. I am not only supplied with all the necessaries of life, but, if I chose, I could command the luxuries; but I trust God will preserve me from such snares. I wish not to receive the reward of my labors in this world, but in the world to come."

The explanation of the mystery was this. The elector, foreseeing that, in consequence of the emperor's proclamation, Luther's life would be in danger, had caused him to be waylaid, and carried in safety to the old castle of Wartburg, near Eisenach; while a story of his murder was propagated by his fugitive attendant. Luther, being supplied with every convenience, devoted himself to study, yet was required by the elector by no means to permit his retreat to be known. He was situated in an old castle, built upon a lofty eminence which commanded a delightful prospect. Freed from care and anxiety, his mind seemed to soar aloft, like the birds around his dwelling. His letters written at this period are full of poetic fancy, and show that his mind sympathized with the lovely scenes around him.

His confinement lasted for ten months. During this brief period, he translated the New Testament into German, besides writing treatises against auricular confession, monastic vows, clerical celibacy, prayers for the dead, &c. His works spread with amazing rapidity, and produced a wonderful effect, particularly in Saxony. Hundreds of monks quitted their convents, and married; and the Austrian friars of Wittenberg abolished mass. The excitement soon ran into excess, and Carolstadt, a disciple of Luther, demolished the images in a church at Wittenberg, and proposed to banish all books from the university except the Bible.

He even affected to obey to the letter the sentence pronounced on Adam, and went to work a portion of each day in the fields. The mild and polished Melancthon caught the infection, and labored in a baker's shop.

Luther, in his retirement, heard of these follies, which were calculated to ruin his cause, and, at the risk of his life, immediately departed for Wittenberg. He now preached openly his doctrines, with amazing power and effect; and succeeded in quelling the violence of his fanatical followers. These sermons are patterns of moderation, wisdom, and popular eloquence; they show a marked contrast to the violence and scurrility which soil his writings, directed against the malignity and duplicity with which he had chiefly to contend.

Luther was now the acknowledged head of the reformation; he continued, by preaching and writing, to aid the great cause of Protestantism. His productions were stained with coarse invective; but this was the taste of the age, and belongs equally to his opponents. In 1524, he threw off his monastic dress, and condemned monastic institutions. Convents, both of men and women, were now rapidly suppressed, and the reformation, in some cases, ran into fanaticism. A sect, called Anabaptists, ran into the wildest extremes at Munster. They made war upon property and law, and in their madness practised the grossest vices and crimes, under the sanction of religion. Luther was sorely grieved at these things, and did all in his power to correct them, though not with complete success.

In 1525, he married Catherine de Bora, a young nun, who had left her convent a year before, and resided with Melancthon. He was happy in this marriage, and though at the age of forty-two, seems to have entered into it almost with the affections of youth. In 1534, he completed his great work, the German version of the Bible, which is much admired for its elegance, force, and precision, and has rendered the Scriptures really popular in Germany.

The remaining years of his life were passed in comparative quiet. In 1546, being at Eisleben, he fell sick, on the seventeenth of February, and seemed at once to be aware of his approaching end. He grew worse in the evening, and died in the midst of his friends, expressing a firm conviction of the truth of that faith which he had taught. His body was carried to Wittenberg, and buried with great honors.

Luther's works are voluminous, and great favorites in Germany. In company, he was

always lively, and abounded in sallies of wit and good-humor. He gave advice and assistance wherever it was needed; he interested himself for every indigent person who applied to him, and devoted himself, with his whole soul, to the pleasures of society. Rough and stormy as are his controversial writings, he was no stranger to the elegant arts. His soul was filled with music, and he often solaced himself by singing, and playing upon the flute and lute.

Nor is Luther to be regarded only in the light of a religious reformer. He not only burst the bonds of religious tyranny throughout Christendom, but he created in Germany that impulse towards spiritual philosophy, that thirst for knowledge, that logical exercise of the mind, which have made the Germans the most intellectual people in Europe. He was the friend of education, of mental freedom, of religious light, of civil liberty. He rescued the Bible from the exclusive grasp of the Church of Rome; by a gigantic effort, he translated it into his native tongue. He not only made it acceptable to forty millions, who spoke his native language, but he made it the common property of the people of all Europe. He was no courtly flatterer, but the friend of the poor and the humble; he was as ready to condemn cupidity and extravagance among his followers, as among those who adhered to the Church of Rome.

The life which Luther led was calculated to develop the sterner parts of his character, and we must admit that his writings display many gross and abusive passages; yet he possessed many gentle and attractive qualities. His love of music amounted to a passion; "Old Hundred," a tune which has guided and elevated the devotions of millions, was his composition; and some of our sweetest hymns were written by him. His familiar letters are full of gentle affection. Even when Tetzel, his especial enemy, was deserted by those who had used him, and now, in poverty and desolation, was upon his death-bed, Luther was at his side, pouring into his harassed soul the oil of consolation. One of his last acts was that of reconciliation, in a noble but distracted house. When we look through the steel mail of the controversialist and the reformer, and observe traits of character like these, we cannot but lift our thoughts with thanks to Heaven, that human nature — with all its drawbacks — when elevated by religion, has such capacities as these.

To estimate Luther's character, and the work he accomplished, we must bear in

mind the circumstances under which he acted. He was educated a Catholic, in a country where the dominion of the Romish Church was complete, as well over the government as the people. All around him, father, mother, friends, society, were living in abject submission to the established creed. Doubts were held as the suggestions of the devil; freedom of thought was infidelity; denial of any received dogma was heresy, and worthy the judgments of the Inquisition — of punishment here and hereafter. These were the orthodox notions of the age, and Luther was a priest of that church which bound the civilized world to such a system.

What a fearful struggle in his own mind, with his own habits of thought, his associations and convictions, did it involve, for the reformer first to doubt, and then to repudiate, the faith that thus enthralled him! What courage of soul, to meet the fears that spring up in the bosom; what energy of mind, to rend asunder the chains that fetter the reason, in such a condition! And when he had triumphed over internal difficulties, what a work was still before him! The pope, by the invisible cords of spiritual despotism, held all Europe in subjection. Every monarch was, more or less, his slave; every prison, like some fearful monster, was ready to open its jaws at his command, and close them upon whomsoever he might designate; the jealous Inquisition, with all-seeing eyes, all-hearing ears, spread out its net on every hand. All the united powers and prejudices of society — public opinion, laws, institutions, armies, prisons, chains, fire, the rack — were in the hands of the church, and it was against this that one man was called to contend. It was as if a single knight, and he without arms, were called to attack the lordly castle, whose massive walls and towering battlements might look down with disdain upon the assailant.

And yet Luther triumphed! We cannot doubt that he was sustained by a deep conviction of the rectitude of his cause; that a sense of duty raised him above the considerations of personal interest and safety; that he acted as if in the presence of God, and in the hope of a heavenly, not an earthly, recompense. We must not only admit that his abilities were great; his qualities rare and well adapted to his work; that he was a man of peculiar singleness and sincerity of aim; and that he was endowed with the richest graces of religion; but we must admit something more — that

truth is mighty; that the abuses of the Church of Rome had risen to such a pitch, as to furnish the very elements of revolution; and finally, that the good providence of God shaped events to their great issues in behalf of liberty and light. Can any one explain the revolution achieved by Luther on any grounds short of these?



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

FREDERICK II., King of Prussia, who acquired the title of *the Great*, was born on the 24th of January, 1712. He was reared in the school of adversity; his father, Frederick William, being a brutal tyrant, even in his own family. To escape from this domestic tyranny, which was almost insupportable, he planned a clandestine flight from Prussia, with a confidant by the name of De Katt. His father discovered this before it could be carried into effect. The consequence was, that Frederick was arrested, along with his friend, and both were instantly tried before an obedient court-martial, which condemned them to death! This sentence would have been carried into effect against the prince, but for the interposition of Charles VI., of Austria, to whose earnest entreaties Frederick William at length yielded, with the prophetic remark, that "Austria would one day discover what a serpent she had nourished in her bosom."

The prince, however, suffered a long and severe imprisonment, in the fort of Custrin, where, as if to aggravate his punishment,

the unfortunate De Katt was beheaded on a scaffold, raised before his apartment, to the level of the window, from which he was compelled to witness this cruel and affecting spectacle. His subsequent treatment in prison was as harsh and severe as that of the meanest felon, and a considerable time elapsed before he found the means of softening its rigor.

This was at length managed through the instrumentality of a Baron Wrech, whose family lived in the neighborhood, and who, at considerable risk as well as expense, furnished him with books, music, and other comforts. By degrees, he so gained upon his gaoler, that he was permitted, under cover of the night, to visit at the baron's residence; and, as the young Wrechs were sprightly, and accomplished, as well as anxious to serve him, they got up little concerts for his amusement. In this way, for upwards of a year, his imprisonment was greatly ameliorated.

The old king at last relented, and Frederick obtained his liberty; but it was only on the special condition that he married Elizabeth Christina, a princess of the house of Brunswick. This forced marriage proved utterly abortive of the object intended by the tyrannical old match-maker, for Frederick never lived with the princess, although, through life, he treated her with the greatest respect. She was a woman of meritorious conduct, but quite destitute of personal attractions.

Frederick's marriage took place in 1732, and from that time till the death of his father, in 1740, he resided at Rheinsberg, a village some leagues from Berlin. During this interval of eight years he devoted himself chiefly to literary pursuits, and wrote his *Anti-Machiavel*, and *Reflections on the Character of Charles XII.* The social circle with which he was connected, at this time, consisted mostly of learned and ingenious Frenchmen, and probably that circumstance contributed to imbue him with the strong predilection which he ever afterwards displayed in favor of everything French.

His accession to the throne, in 1740, brought at once into action the whole energies of his character. He himself entered personally upon all the duties usually committed by kings to their ministers; and, in order to accomplish the multiplicity of business which thus devolved upon him, he laid down strict rules for the appropriation of his time, to which he ever afterwards scrupulously adhered. He rose regularly at four in the morning, occupying but a few

minutes with his dress, of which, however, he was careless, even to slovenliness; and this practice he continued till a late period of his life.

The details of a peaceful administration were, however, found quite inadequate to the activity of his mind. Accordingly, in the first year of his reign, he resolved on war; but, unfortunately for his character, it was a war of aggression—a war, too, against a female, and the heir of the very house which had saved him from the scaffold. He resolved to wrest Silesia from Maria Theresa, of Austria, and in less than two years he accomplished this object, the province being ceded to him by the treaty of Breslau, in 1742. It has ever since continued to form a part of the Prussian dominions.

The acquisition of Silesia, and the grasping policy of Frederick, seem to have excited the jealousy of other European powers, as well as the settled enmity of Austria; for a new war broke out in 1742, in which, after a great deal of bloodshed, Prussia was again victorious, and had the possession of Silesia confirmed to her by a new treaty.

In the succeeding ten years, Frederick sedulously cultivated the arts of peace, and by adhering strictly to the systematic apportionment of his time, he was enabled to exercise a personal superintendence over every department of government, without abridging either his pleasures or amusements, and without the slightest abandonment of his literary pursuits. He carried on an extensive correspondence with Voltaire, and several of the most distinguished literati of Europe. He wrote the *History of his own Times*, and *Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg*; and he reestablished the Academy of Sciences of Berlin. It was in the interval of peace, too, that he invited Voltaire, and other literary characters, to reside at his capital. The visit of that extraordinary man, and its result, are well known. The quarrel between him and Frederick, and the terms on which they parted, were little creditable to either; and, besides, they very clearly proved to the world that, in the business of common life, philosophers are not superior to ordinary men.

The most important portion, however, of all Frederick's labors, during these ten years of peace, was his civil administration. It comprehended various useful reforms, and the introduction of numerous improvements, for the benefit of the people. He was zealous in the cause of education, and in the establishment of schools and

professorships. He also caused the laws to be revised, and a new code to be prepared, which, after much labor, was effected, and it still goes under his name. This code abolished torture, and recognized universal toleration in religion. Perhaps the general character of the jurisprudence he established may be best gathered from his celebrated instruction to the judges:—"If a suit arise between me and one of my subjects, and the case is a doubtful one, always decide against me."

In the midst of all his improvements, Frederick was again roused to war. He had been advised that Austria, Russia, and Saxony had entered into a treaty, for the conquest and partition of his territories. He demanded an explanation from the court of Vienna, which being unsatisfactory, he immediately struck the first blow, by marching an army into Saxony, and taking possession of it almost unopposed. Thus commenced the celebrated "seven years' war," the result of which, after numerous battles, and an incredible waste of human life and treasure, was a treaty which again confirmed Prussia in the possession of Silesia, and established the reputation of Frederick as the greatest military genius of the age.

The next ten years were spent in efforts to repair the devastation and misery which Prussia had suffered by the war. Among other ameliorations, may be mentioned his emancipation of the peasantry from hereditary servitude, which he began by giving up his own signorial rights over the serfs on the crown domains. A good deal of his time was also devoted to literary pursuits, as it was during this period that he wrote his "*History of the Seven Years' War*."

In 1772, he became a party to the partition of Poland, and shared largely in the spoil, as well as in the disgrace, of that infamous political robbery. In 1778, he was again in hostility with Austria, respecting the succession to Bavaria, which that power, at the death of the Elector without issue, proposed, on some antiquated, feudal grounds, to re-annex to her own dominions. This war was of short duration, Frederick being successful in settling the question by treaty. In 1785, he had another dispute with Austria, in which he appeared as the defender of the Germanic Confederation, and the rights of its several princes. Here he was also successful, the Emperor Joseph yielding the question at issue, without having recourse to arms.

Frederick was now getting old, and his constitution had begun to decay. He also suffered occasionally from gout, the necessary consequence of rich diet and high-seasoned cookery, to which he was all his life exceedingly partial. He had, moreover, a voracious appetite, and he constantly indulged it to repletion. This brought on a complication of disorders, under which he suffered severely, though he never once uttered a complaint, but continued his public services with as much zeal and anxiety as when in perfect health. He continued to do so up to August, 1786, when a confirmed dropsy having supervened, he fell into a lethargy on the sixteenth of that month, and expired during the night.

An impartial reviewer of the reign of Frederick will discard all that is attractive or dazzling in his character, either from his talents as an accomplished warrior, or his wit as a man of letters. He will consider him simply as a ruler of a nation, and a member of the great European community. In that view, it is impossible to deny that his administration of affairs was singularly marked by promptitude and energy. Wherever active exertions were required, or could ensure success, he generally prevailed; and, to use the words of an elegant writer, "as he was in all things a master of those inferior abilities which are denominated address, it is not wonderful that he was uniformly fortunate in the cabinets of his neighbors." His reign, however, with all its glory, and all its success, both in diplomacy and war, was a memorable proof that the happiness of the people is of little consequence, even to an enlightened despot, when balanced either against his cupidity or his ambition. It was these qualities alone that embroiled Frederick with his neighbors; and we have only to turn to his own works for a melancholy confession of the disastrous consequences which were thus entailed upon his subjects.

"The state of Prussia," says he, in his *History of his own Times*, "can only be compared to that of a man riddled with wounds, weakened by the loss of blood, and ready to sink under the weight of his misfortunes. The nobility were exhausted, the commons ruined, numerous villages were burned, and many towns were nearly depopulated. Civil order was lost in a total anarchy; in fact, the desolation was universal." In this candid exposure of the consequences of his own policy, Frederick has given the true character of his reign. Such were the results of a successful career of

conquest; one which is often regarded as the most brilliant in the annals of mankind—one which conferred the title of "the Great" on the chief actor; and one which has been the almost unbounded theme of eulogy. He increased his kingdom by twenty thousand square miles; left seventy millions of Prussian dollars in the treasury, and an army of two hundred thousand men; yet, while the government was thus enriched and strengthened, we see, by the monarch's own confession, how the people had suffered.

There is abundant evidence that Frederick was a man of wit and learning; and we know that he possessed the most unbounded influence over his soldiery. Before the battle of Rostorth, which led to the most celebrated of all the King of Prussia's victories, Frederick addressed his little army, not amounting to more than twenty-five thousand men, in nearly the following words: "My brave soldiers,—the hour is coming, in which all that is, and all that ought to be, dear to us, depends upon the swords that are now drawn for the battle. Time permits me to say but little, nor is there occasion to say much. You know that there is no labor, no hunger, no cold, no watching, no danger, that I have not shared with you, hitherto; and you now see me ready to lay down my life with you and for you. All I ask is the same pledge of fidelity and affection that I give. Acquit yourselves like men, and put your confidence in God."

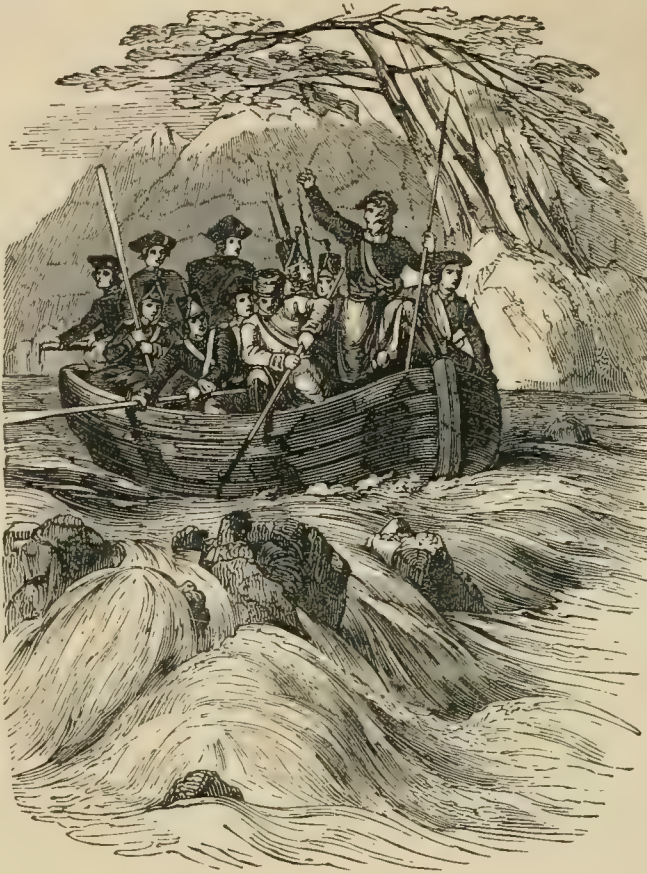
The effect of this speech was indescribable. The soldiers answered it by a universal shout, and their looks and demeanor became animated to a sort of heroic frenzy. Frederick led on his troops in person, exposed to the hottest of the fires. The enemy, for a few moments, made a gallant resistance; but, overwhelmed by the headlong intrepidity of the Prussians, they at length gave way in every part, and fled in the utmost disorder. Night alone saved from destruction the scattered remains of an army which, in the morning, was double the number of its conquerors.

There are some anecdotes which exhibit the conqueror in a still more pleasing light. He was fond of children, and the young princes, his nephews, had always access to him. One day, while he was writing in his cabinet, where the eldest of them was playing with a ball, it happened to fall on the table; the king threw it on the floor, and wrote on. Presently after, the ball again fell on the table; he threw it away

once more, and cast a serious look on the child, who promised to be more careful, and continued his play. At last, the ball unfortunately fell on the very paper on which the king was writing, who, being a little out of humor, put the ball in his pocket. The little prince humbly begged pardon, and entreated to have his ball again, which was refused. He continued some time praying for it in a very piteous manner, but all in vain. At last, grown tired of asking, he placed himself before his majesty, put his little hand to his side, and said, with a menacing look and tone, "Do you choose, sire, to restore the ball, or not?" The king smiled, took the ball from his pocket, and gave it to the prince, with these words: "Thou art a brave fellow; Silesia will never be retaken while thou art alive."

A Prussian ecclesiastic, named Mylius, found among his father's papers a promissory note to a considerable amount, which the king, as prince, had given him. He immediately sent it to the king, with the following letter: "Sire,—Among my father's papers I have found the enclosed note. I cannot tell whether it has been through negligence, or any other means, that it has not been cancelled. I therefore leave the matter to the disposal of your majesty." The king sent for Mylius, and said he well remembered receiving the money from his father, and that if there was any error, he would be the loser himself. He immediately paid the money, with interest.

During his last illness, Frederick endured many restless nights, which he endeavored to soothe by conversing with the servant who chanced to sit up with him. On one of these occasions, he inquired of an honest young Pomeranian from whence he came. "From a little village in Pomerania." "Are your parents living?" "An aged mother." "How does she maintain herself?" "By spinning." "How much does she gain daily by it?" "Sixpence." "But she cannot live well on that." "In Pomerania it is cheap living." "Did you never send her anything?" "O, yes; I have sent her, at different times, a few dollars." "That was bravely done; you are a good boy. You have a deal of trouble with me. Have patience. I shall endeavor to lay something by for you, if you behave well." The monarch kept his word: for, a few nights after, the Pomeranian being again in attendance, received several pieces of gold, and heard, to his great joy and surprise, that one hundred rix dollars had been settled on his mother during her life.



ARNOLD'S MARCH TO QUEBEC.

WHILE the American army were blockading Boston, in the autumn of 1775, a scheme was projected by congress for the invasion of Canada. Favorable accounts had been received from that country, and it was believed that neither the Canadians nor the Indians would take up arms against the Americans. The scheme was approved by Washington, and it was decided that a strong force should advance upon Quebec by the way of Lake Champlain, while another body should be detached from the army at Cambridge, and march upon the same point through the wilderness of Maine, by the way of the river Kennebec. Generals Montgomery and Schuyler were entrusted with the command of the former, and Colonel Arnold with that of the latter division of the invading army.

Arnold's undertaking was deemed hazardous, but it was beset with far greater perils than any one imagined. There were few settlements in Maine at any great dis-

tance from the sea-coast, and the district to be traversed was a desolate wilderness, of which hardly anything was known; but Arnold, who was courageous, of a sanguine temper, and little accustomed to prudential calculations when a new and attractive enterprise presented itself to his ambition, readily accepted the command of the expedition. His force consisted of ten companies of New England infantry, and three companies of Virginia and Pennsylvania riflemen. They amounted in all to eleven hundred men. The field officers, in addition to the commander, were Colonels Greene and Enos, and Majors Bigelow and Meigs. The riflemen were commanded by Captain Daniel Morgan, afterwards so celebrated as a partisan officer. The famous Aaron Burr served in this expedition as a lieutenant.

On the 13th of September, 1775, the detachment marched from Cambridge for Newburyport, where, six days after, they

embarked in ten transports for the Kennebec. Two days' voyage brought them to the mouth of this river, and they ascended it as far as Gardiner. A company of boat-builders had previously been despatched to that place from Cambridge, to construct batteaux; and they labored with such industry, that in fourteen days from the time the first orders for the drafting of the troops were issued at Cambridge, the whole body were embarked on the Kennebec in two hundred boats, completely equipped and provisioned. They sailed up the river and rendezvoused at Fort Western, opposite the site of the present town of Augusta.

Hitherto they had proceeded without any adequate conception of the difficulties that lay before them; but the perils of the undertaking soon began to appear. The cold season was approaching, and the winters of Maine are uncommonly severe. Eleven hundred men, with their arms, ammunition and provisions, were to find their way through an unknown region, wild, rugged, and without inhabitants. There were craggy mountains to traverse, how lofty and steep no one knew. Nothing like a road existed in the wilderness. Rapids and cataracts obstructed the navigation of the rivers, and they were not only compelled to force their batteaux against swift currents, but were exposed to the labor of constantly unlading them, and transporting them and their cargoes round the waterfalls. More than two hundred miles were to be travelled through all these difficulties, before they reach the French settlements on the frontiers of Canada. Arnold had but slight knowledge of the country to direct his movements. Colonel Montresor, a British officer, had passed over this route fifteen years before, and an imperfect copy of his journal had fallen into the hands of the American leader, who relied chiefly upon it for his guidance. Some Indians had furnished additional information; and Arnold secretly despatched two persons forward as an exploring party. These men, on reaching the head waters of Dead river, met an old Norridgewock Indian, the last of his tribe, who had his wigwam in that neighborhood. The crafty savage, being probably in the interest of the British, contrived to terrify them with bugbear stories, and they dared not advance any further, but wrote back to Arnold, who received their communication at Fort Western.

From this post, the army proceeded up the river in four divisions, keeping a day's march between them, that they might not interfere with each other in passing rapids

and cataracts. Morgan, with his riflemen, led the van, and Enos brought up the rear. As they advanced, the rapidity of the stream increased, and the bed and shores grew still more rocky. On the first of October the forward party reached Norridgewock. Here, a little below the falls of the river, formerly stood the Indian village where the celebrated missionary, Rasle, lived twenty-six years, and built a chapel. The ruins of the latter were still visible, as Arnold's troops passed the spot. Their curiosity was also interested by another object; this was a child fourteen months old, the first white person ever born in that place. At the Norridgewock falls, it was necessary to unlade the batteaux, and transport them, with all their effects, a mile and a quarter by land, over a rough and rocky country. On examining their provisions, they were now found to be much damaged, particularly the bread. The boats, from the hurry in which they had been constructed, proved leaky, and had constantly suffered from accidents in ascending the rapids. It cost the little army seven days' labor to repair their injured craft, and get them round the falls. Passing more of these obstructions, they reached the Great Carrying Place at the head of the Kennebec. The fatigues which they had encountered were extreme, having been obliged to wade in the river for half the distance, dragging the boats against the swift current. Much sickness prevailed among them, reducing their effective force to nine hundred and fifty men.

The expedition had now reached the extreme point of navigation on the main stream of the Kennebec. From this spot, the Great Carrying Place extended fifteen miles to Dead river, one of the head streams of the Kennebec. They had yet fifteen days' provision remaining, and Arnold was confident of reaching the Chaudiere, which falls into the St. Lawrence, in eight or ten days. It was necessary to transport the boats, provisions and baggage, on men's shoulders the greater part of the distance, as the Carrying Place had only three small ponds to relieve them of the labor through its whole extent. A steep and rugged ascent of three miles caused them a march of painful toil to the first pond, where they again embarked. Beyond this, their course was impeded by craggy ravines and morasses; but by unwearied efforts they made their way through every impediment, and, after six days' incessant labor, they reached Dead river on the 16th of October. The ponds were stocked with abundance of fine salmon trout, which

afforded a most welcome supply of food after this laborious march. Two block-houses were built at different points on this route, as depositories for the sick, and for a stock of provisions which had been ordered from Norridgewock.

Before they reached Dead river, Arnold sent forward one of his men with two Indians. The latter carried letters to General Schuyler, and some persons in Quebec, who were supposed to be well affected toward the Americans. The other individual was directed to explore the French settlements on the Chaudiere, ascertain the feeling of the inhabitants, and return with such intelligence as he could obtain. It appears that Arnold had not sufficient proof of the fidelity of the Indians to warrant his entrusting them with so important a mission, for they betrayed their trust, and carried the letters to the lieutenant-governor of Canada. The expedition now advanced up the gentle stream of the Dead river, which, however, was interrupted in several places by falls of short descent. The meandering course of the river made their progress a very slow one. Near a bold and lofty mountain, capped with snow, the army halted for rest, two or three days. A tradition has prevailed that Major Bigelow ascended to the top of this mountain, in the hope of discovering the hills of Canada and the spires of Quebec; and from this circumstance it has obtained the name of Mount Bigelow.

The provisions now began to fall short, and a detachment of ninety men were sent back to hasten the march of the rear division, which was better supplied than the rest. Arnold and Morgan pushed forward with the first and second. Heavy rains fell, and for three days every man and all the baggage were drenched with water. Violent floods, pouring down the ravines of this mountainous region, exposed them to constant danger. One night, having encamped on shore at a late hour, they were suddenly roused by a mountain torrent, which burst upon them with such fury that they had barely time to escape, before the spot on which they had lain was completely overflowed. These incessant rains caused the river to swell, and in nine hours the water rose eight feet. The rapidity of the current was increased, and the stream, expanding, flooded the low grounds along the banks of the river, and entangled the batteaux among the driftwood, bushes, and other obstructions. Seven of them were overset, and all their cargoes lost. By this disaster their slender stock of provisions became further

reduced, and a council of war being called, it was decided to send back all the sick and debilitated. Orders were therefore despatched to Greene and Enos, who were yet in the rear, to push forward with as many of their men as they could supply with fifteen days' provision, and send the remainder back to Norridgewock. Enos disobeyed this order, and, instead of continuing his march, abandoned the enterprise, and retreated with his whole division of three companies to the sea-coast, from whence he returned to the army at Cambridge.

The other division continued their toilsome course up Dead river, ignorant that they were abandoned by their comrades. So many difficulties were encountered, that they made but twenty-one miles' progress in three days. Arnold led the van with sixty men, designing to make a forced march to the Chaudiere, and send back provisions to the main body. The fatigues and sufferings of the soldiers augmented daily; the cold increased; the rain changed to snow; the rivers and ponds froze, and they were obliged to drag the batteaux through the ice. At length, on the 27th of October, the advanced party reached the highlands which separate the head streams of Maine from those of Canada, having passed seventeen falls on Dead river, and made their way through an immense number of ponds and morasses, choked with logs and other obstructions. They were now near Lake Megantic, the source of the Chaudiere; a sheet of water thirteen miles long, and three or four broad, and surrounded by lofty mountains. They encamped on its eastern shore, where they fortunately discovered a large Indian wigwam, which afforded them comfortable quarters.

At this spot they found Lieutenants Steel and Church, who had been forward to explore the country, and clear paths at the portages. Arnold was gratified to find also in their company Jakins, the individual who had been sent into Canada with the Indians. He had explored the French settlements, and brought a very favorable account of the people, stating them to be friendly to the Americans, and rejoiced at the approach of the army. Arnold now detached Captain Hanchet with fifty-four men, to march by land along the shore of the lake, and himself, with sixteen others, embarked in five batteaux and a birch canoe, to gain the settlements as speedily as possible. In three hours they reached the northern extremity of the lake, and entered the Chaudiere, which dashed its turbulent waters over a rocky bottom, boiling and foaming with

great fury. The batteaux were swept down the stream with fearful rapidity; and they had no pilot. They shortly fell among rapids; three of their batteaux were upset and dashed to pieces against the rocks, with the total loss of their cargoes. Six men were for some time in imminent danger of drowning; but, after struggling a long time in the water, they succeeded in saving their lives. This disaster, however, saved the party from destruction. For no sooner had the men dried their clothes and reëmbarked than one of them, who had walked forward, cried out, "A fall ahead!" But for this discovery, the whole party must have been hurried to instant death. This providential escape taught them caution; but their whole course down this dangerous stream was marked with every species of peril. Rapids and falls were continually occurring. The canoe ran upon the rocks and was lost. At a portage of above half a mile, they were fortunate enough to find two Penobscot Indians, who assisted them in passing round. After escaping a multitude of dangers, they arrived, on the 30th of October, at Sertigan, the first French settlement on the Chaudiere, seventy miles from Lake Megantic, by the course of the stream.

In the mean time, the main body were advancing with all possible speed under the excessive fatigues and privations to which they were exposed. Their sufferings were now augmented to an alarming degree. Incessant toil, amid cold, rain, snow and ice, had almost exhausted their strength; their provisions gave out, and famine stared them in the face. The few dogs in the army were killed, and afforded the hungry soldiers the last meal apparently within their reach. Then the hides of the dogs were devoured. After this, their moose-skin moccasins, cartridge-boxes, breeches, shoes, and other articles of leather, were boiled, and eaten, to save them from absolute starvation. Amid such incredible sufferings, they crossed the highlands, and proceeded down the Chaudiere; but, exhausted by famine, they were unable to prevent the total destruction of their batteaux in the rapids of that river. At last, on the third of November, at the very point of starvation, they were transported with joy at the sight of a party of their own men, who had been sent back by Arnold with a supply of provisions. The next day, they arrived at a French house, where they were hospitably received. This was the first dwelling they had seen for thirty-one days. In this unparalleled march they traversed a distance of more than three

hundred miles through a wilderness, against rapids and falls, through tangled woods, swamps, and morasses, and over craggy hills and mountains. All their powder, except what they carried about them in cartridges and horns, was lost.

The whole army, emerging in detached parties from the forests, was thus assembled in Canada, and appear quickly to have forgotten their losses and sufferings, in their ardor to prosecute the great enterprise which they had undertaken. The Canadians received them in the most friendly manner; they supplied them liberally with provisions, and seemed to wish them success in their undertaking. The sudden appearance of such a body of men, issuing in this unexpected manner from the bosom of an almost impassable wilderness, struck them with surprise and astonishment. The exploit served to realize the tales of romance; and the old Canadians, who dwell in the remote and sequestered valley of the Chaudiere, recount to their children at this day the marvellous tale of the "descent of the Bostonians," as the great event that has marked the history of that region.

The heroic courage, firmness and resolution of this famous band, were not rewarded with a proportionate degree of final success. Ten days after their arrival at Sertigan, Arnold reached Point Levy, on the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec, and the whole army rendezvoused at that place on the 13th of November. The approach of the Americans had already become known in Quebec; yet so great was the panic occasioned in that city at the sight of Arnold's troops, that an immediate *coup de main* would doubtless have carried the place. The British, however, had secured all the boats on the river, and the Americans, although in sight of the grand object of their expedition, were unable to strike the important blow. After some delay, thirty or forty birch canoes were collected, and Arnold prepared for an attack. But during this space, the British had time to recover from their surprise; Quebec was put in a state of defence; the exaggerations respecting the force of the Americans were exposed, and Arnold had the mortification to discover that his men had now not above five cartridges of powder apiece. After summoning the city in vain to surrender, he marched eight leagues up the river, to await the arrival of General Montgomery from Montreal. The unfortunate events which followed form a mournful page in the history of our revolutionary struggle.



TOUSSAINT L'OUVERTURE.

THE beautiful West India island which now bears the name of *Hayti* was called Hispaniola by Columbus, and afterwards acquired the name of St. Domingo. In the richness and variety of its productions, and its local beauties, it surpassed every island in the western hemisphere. Its plains and valleys presented the most inviting scenes of rich and perpetual verdure. The extreme salubrity of the climate, and the abundance of its delicious fruits, rendered it one of the most delightful abodes in the world. Divided between France and Spain, it was a source of great revenue to both of those powers, from the flourishing commerce carried on in the exportation of the numerous products of its luxuriant and well-cultivated soil. The French division, although comprising less than a third part of the island, was considered the most valuable spot of its dimensions in the western world. The exports to France of sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, cocoa, and other articles, exceeded thirty millions of dollars annually.

When the French revolution broke out,

the planters of St. Domingo did not look on in silence; and the National Assembly, in requiring a more equal representation of the people, tacitly acknowledged that the colonies ought to have a voice in the legislature. The colonists, perceiving this, determined to seize the advantages which it offered. They selected their deputies, formed their colonial assemblies, and proceeded to establish a new constitution for the internal government of the island. This constitution, when published, sufficiently showed that nothing short of their independence of the mother country was the object at which they remotely aimed. Among the motives which led them to form this resolution, was the decree of the National Assembly, which declared that "all men are born free and equal as to their rights." This declaration they interpreted as tacitly recommending the emancipation of their slaves. The island was soon distracted by commotions; the royalists and revolutionists were arrayed against each other in the heat of faction; violent measures were pursued by both par-

ties, and the utmost ferment prevailed throughout the colony, in which all classes, the slaves not excepted, took an active interest.

A society had been formed in France, called the *Amis des Noirs*, composed partly of men who afterwards became leaders in the revolution, and partly of mulattoes, resident in Paris. Their avowed object was to procure the emancipation of the slaves; but their measures for its accomplishment were violent and injudicious. They demanded immediate emancipation; forgetting, in the heat of their zeal, that the negroes were unfit at that period to value and improve the advantages of freedom. They were equally rash in the methods by which they made their designs known to the slaves. Inflammatory addresses were dispersed among them, and various other arts were practised to induce them to rise against their masters. The colonists, at the same time, acted with equal indiscretion. They took no measures to quiet the murmurs of their slaves, and would listen to none of their demands, however reasonable. The slaves, finding that, notwithstanding the decrees of the National Assembly, their privileges were still withheld, determined to secure them by force of arms. Accommodation soon became impossible; the French would offer no terms, and shut their eyes to the tremendous dangers that were impending over them. The slaves rose in insurrection, and St. Domingo became the scene of as fearful ravages as the world has ever witnessed. Conflagration, pillage, and massacre spread over the island, and the mind recoils in horror from the details of this fearful period.

Toussaint L'Ouverture, who distinguished himself early in this war, and subsequently became the leader of the blacks, was one of the most extraordinary characters of modern times, and exhibited proofs of genius and elevation of character which give him a high rank in the annals of great men. He was born a slave, of African parents, at Breda, near Cape François, in 1743. After he became the chief man in the island, one of his flatterers compiled a genealogy, declaring his descent from an African king. We do not know this to be false, but, although Toussaint was willing to have it believed, it is, probably, without foundation. In his youth, he was employed as a cattle-driver on the estate of the Count de Noé, to whom he belonged; he was taught reading and writing by another negro. In due time, he rose to the dignity of coachman to the man-

ager of the estate; and when the revolution broke out, he held the office of overseer and possessed the confidence of his owner.

At the commencement of the struggle, many of the slaves adhered to the cause of their masters. Toussaint was one of these. From the beginning of the massacres of 1791, to the appearance of the proclamation of the 4th of February, 1794, which declared all slaves free, he continued loyal, and made himself conspicuous by his zeal for the Catholic religion and royalty. At first he bore the title of "Physician of the Royal Armies," though we are not told what knowledge of medicine he possessed. He then became aide-de-camp to the negro leader, Jean François. His influence with the negroes increased, and the Spanish president, Garcia, honored him with his full confidence. When the negroes rejected the first overtures of the French commissioners, Toussaint assigned as a reason, that they had always been governed by a king; could be governed only by a king; and having lost the King of France, had betaken themselves to the protection of the King of Spain. But the proclamation of the French, emancipating the slaves, opened new views to him, and he negotiated with their general for a return to his old associates. Being promised a commission of brigadier-general, he went over to the French. His abandonment of the Spaniards caused the surrender of many of their most important posts.

Laveaux, the French governor, treated Toussaint, at first, with reserve and coolness, which compelled him to withdraw into retirement. He was now past his fiftieth year, and looked upon his days of activity and his public career as ended. But in 1795, he was suddenly called forth by a conspiracy of the mulattoes, who arrested and imprisoned the governor at Cape François. Toussaint raised an army of negroes, and being supported by the partisans of the French, found himself at the head of ten thousand men. With this force, he marched to the capital and set the governor at liberty. Laveaux, in his gratitude for this deed, proclaimed his deliverer the protector of the whites, the avenger of the constituted authorities, and the "black Spartacus," who, according to the prediction of the Abbe Raynal, was destined to arise and avenge his race. Toussaint's importance now rapidly augmented. He was made a general of division, and his influence was so predominant, that he was, in fact, the supreme arbiter of the fortunes of the colony. He reduced the whole north of the island, with

a trifling exception, to the dominion of the French, and was the first that succeeded in establishing discipline among the armed negroes.

He was now commander-in-chief of the armies of St. Domingo. The island appeared to be firmly reestablished under the French government, but the distrust of their commissioner, Hedouville, caused a renewal of the troubles. He attempted to thwart all the plans of Toussaint for the welfare of the colony. The latter persuaded the negroes to return to their agricultural labors, and thought it advisable that they should work five years for their former masters, reserving one fourth of their earnings, before they assumed the full extent of their freedom. At length, Hedouville, who had become odious to the inhabitants, from his supposed hostility to the interest of the colony, was dismayed by an insurrection at Cape François, and fled, with all his adherents, comprising twelve or fifteen hundred men, to France. A strong animosity had subsisted from the beginning between the blacks and the mulattoes. The departure of the commissioner caused this feud to break out again in all its violence. Rigaud, the mulatto chief, led his ferocious partisans on to rapine and massacre. Toussaint used his utmost exertions to check the sanguinary deeds of his own men; and he carried on the war with such success, that he captured all the strong-holds of the mulattoes except Aux Cayes, where he besieged Rigaud, in 1799, and finally compelled him to abandon the island.

In the mean time, Bonaparte had become First Consul of France, and one of his first measures was to send a deputation to St. Domingo, who informed Toussaint that he was confirmed in his authority. This chief was now at the summit of his prosperity. Early in 1801, he subdued the whole Spanish portion of the island, and planned a scheme of a colonial constitution, in which he was appointed governor for life, with power to name his successor and appoint all the officers under the government. He exercised this authority to the full extent. He quelled an insurrection of the negroes, and did not hesitate to punish with death his own nephew, who had placed himself at the head of it. Under his strict but equitable sway, the agriculture and commerce of St. Domingo were soon in a flourishing state. Slavery was abolished, and the blacks were placed on an equality with the whites. Many of the plantations remained in the hands of the original proprietors. The ne-

groes gave every proof of industry, subordination and content. They diligently cultivated the plantations, and received the wages of their labor. They submitted cheerfully to all those regulations which it was thought necessary to establish, and, living in possession of their freedom, seemed perfectly happy.

Toussaint, whose ability, integrity, and mildness had established this favorable order of things, assumed a good deal of state, and affected to cast a shade of mystery around the circumstances of his early life. He took pride in proclaiming himself the negro deliverer foretold by Raynal. He observed great simplicity in respect to his own person, but surrounded himself with a brilliant staff. His popularity was unbounded, and he appears to have been as solicitous for the maintenance of the French interest as for any part of his scheme of government. The colony had seldom been more productive, or the revenue which it afforded to the mother country more abundant. The island seemed to enjoy a fair prospect of advancing in prosperity; the inhabitants were improving in the arts of peace and civilization; the produce of the soil was yielding increased wealth both to the proprietors and the cultivators; and the distinctions of color, and the prejudices founded on them, might at last have been forgotten, had not the restless ambition of the ruler of France, and the foolish discontent of the ex-colonists, disturbed the tranquillity of the island, and suddenly brought back the troubles which had been so happily quieted.

The conduct of Bonaparte towards Toussaint had now become such as to cause serious anxiety in the mind of the latter. He had sent two of his children to France to receive their education, but the First Consul preserved an ominous silence towards all his overtures for friendship. After the treaty of Amiens, Bonaparte issued a proclamation, announcing that slavery was to continue in Martinique and Cayenne, and that St. Domingo was to be "restored to order." This caused a well-grounded alarm, and Toussaint met it by a counter proclamation, on the 18th of December, 1801, in which he professed obedience to the French republic, but at the same time appealed to the soldiery in language which left no doubt of his determination to take up arms in case any attempt should be made to take away the civil right as recognized by the existing governments. The policy of Napoleon appears to be thus explained. Wanting employment for his armies during the truce

of Amiens, and instigated by the fugitive colonists who had been expelled at the beginning of the revolution, and who were anxiously longing for their lost possessions, he determined on subjugating the island by force, reëstablishing slavery, and reinstating the ex-colonists in their original possessions. He despatched a fleet of fifty-four sail, with an army of twenty-five thousand men, under his brother-in-law, General Leclerc, to effect this purpose.

The expedition reached St. Domingo in January, 1802. Toussaint was filled with apprehensions at the sight of this formidable force, and his followers were intimidated and divided. Leclerc brought with him a proclamation of the First Consul, couched in his usual ambiguous style, and intended, no doubt, to deceive the colored population, by seeming to confirm their rights as freemen, while the real object of the expedition was to reduce them to slavery. This proclamation was received among the wavering as one of perfect sincerity, and their apprehensions were quieted. Many of them, in consequence, went over to the French. But Toussaint was not to be deceived. His two sons had been brought out by Leclerc, to be held as hostages in his hands, and as such to check any opposition which their father might be disposed to make to the measures of the French. Leclerc attempted to inveigle him by means of an interview with his sons, in the course of which every appeal was made to his paternal feelings to induce him to submit to the invaders; but Toussaint resisted this attempt with the stern inflexibility of a Roman. "Take back my children," said he; "since it must be so, I will be faithful to my brethren and my God."

War now commenced between the French and the natives, who, under the conduct of Toussaint, Christophe and Dessalines, carried on their enterprises with various success. Leclerc, in February, 1802, proclaimed Toussaint an outlaw, and the blacks sustained serious reverses. Toussaint, however, continued to defend himself, and laid the country waste around him, to obstruct the approach of the enemy. At last, the defection of Christophe and Dessalines obliged him to listen to terms, and his sentence of outlawry was reversed. But, on placing himself in the power of the French, he was treacherously arrested and sent to France, where he was at first lodged in the prison of the Temple at Paris, and afterwards in the castle of Joux, near Besançon, where he was subjected to a rigorous confinement, which, as was probably foreseen

and intended, speedily terminated his existence. He died on the 27th of April, 1803. His family were confined at Brienne en Agen, where one of his sons died; and the survivors were not set at liberty till the restoration of the Bourbons.

The perfidy and cruelty exercised toward Toussaint L'Ouvverture was one of the blackest deeds of Napoleon's reign. He did not fail to reflect upon it during his imprisonment at St. Helena. "I have to reproach myself," said he, "for the expedition to St. Domingo. It was a great fault to try to subject the island by force. I ought to have been content with the intermediate government of Toussaint. Peace was not then sufficiently established with England; and the territorial wealth to which I looked in trying to subject it, would only have enriched our enemies. It was undertaken against my opinion, in conformity to the wishes of the council of state, who were carried away by the cries of the colonists."

Toussaint, from the united testimony of his friends and enemies, deserves to be classed among great men. His plans were devised with great skill, and produced the happiest results. His agricultural improvements excited the surprise and astonishment of all those who had an opportunity to observe them. He sought to replenish the wasted population by every possible means. He held out to those who had emigrated during the contest every encouragement to return, pledging himself to reinstate them in their property, and assuring them that their agricultural undertakings should receive all the support which it was possible for him to afford. This had a most beneficial effect, and many returned, and brought with them the slaves who had accompanied them in their flight, but who, of course, became free on their arrival. His reserved and yet energetic character commanded the respect of the negroes, enabled him to restrain them from excesses, and keep them steady to labor; he thus restored confidence to the whites. He had strong devotional feelings, and a nice sense of domestic morality. Under these influences, he made constant efforts to suppress licentiousness of manners, by promoting marriage throughout the colony. He was aware of the evil effects of the system of polygamy which prevailed among his brethren, and his endeavors to abolish it resulted not only in an improved state of morals, but in an increased population. Toussaint was sometimes harsh in his judgments, and rigid in exacting obedience to his authority; but he was always

grateful, and never left an obligation unrequited. If there was one trait in his character more conspicuous than the rest, it was his unsullied integrity. That he never violated his faith, was a proverbial expression in the mouths of the white inhabitants of the island, and of the English officers who were employed in hostilities against him. Upon a fair view of his life, if we consider the nature of his early training, his defective education, and the oppressive influences which surrounded him, we cannot but look with admiration upon his career. Possessing force and elevation of character which triumphed over all obstacles, he became an able general, a wise statesman, a sound patriot, a great and good man, an honor not merely to "the African race," but to human nature.



EL DORADO.

THE first conquerors of the Spanish Main, as they penetrated into the interior, received information from the various Indian tribes, which wrought strongly upon their excited imagination and avaricious feelings. They were assured that by marching a considerable distance to the south, they would come to a region on the shores of a broad lake, inhabited by Indians of a peculiar character, known by the name of *Omeas*. These people were represented as highly civilized, living under regular laws, principally in a large city, the houses of which were covered with silver. According to the accounts, the magistrates and ministers of religion wore habits of massy gold. All their furniture was of gold and silver. The nation, equally populous and warlike, kept on foot armies so formidable as to render them the terror

of the surrounding tribes. In every part of Venezuela and Caracas, to which the Spaniards directed their steps, they received similar accounts, and from Indians too far separated by distance to have combined in the invention of the tale. It did not appear that superstition had any share in these traditions, for no supernatural virtue or power was attributed to the *Omeas*.

These accounts were confirmed by information from other quarters. In Peru, Pizarro and his followers received intelligence of the existence of a nation, called the *Omaguas*, on the borders of a lake to the north-east of that country. The representations agreed with those of Venezuela, respecting the riches of these people, their power and policy. It was said that after the destruction of the *Lucas*, a younger brother of *Atahualpa* had fled from Peru, carrying with him the greater part of the royal treasures, and founded a greater empire in the north than that of which he had been deprived. Sometimes this emperor was called the *Great Paytiti*, sometimes the *Great Moxo*, sometimes the *Enim*, or *Great Paru*. It is undeniable that *Manco Inca*, the brother of *Atahualpa*, made his escape to the regions east of the *Cordilleras*; the remainder of his history is not clearly known.

An Indian at Lima affirmed that he had been in the capital of this country, the city of *Manoa*, of which he gave a minute description. Three thousand workmen were employed in the street of the silversmiths. The columns of the emperor's palace were of porphyry and alabaster; the galleries of ebony and cedar; the throne was of ivory, and the ascent to it by steps of gold. The palace stood on a small island in the lake. It was built of white stone. At the entrance were two towers, and between them was a column twenty-five feet in height; on the top of this was a large silver moon; and two *pumas*, or American lions, were fastened to the base with chains of gold. Beyond the place occupied by these was a quadrangle planted with trees, and watered by a silver fountain, which spouted through four golden pipes. The gate of the palace was of copper. Within, a golden sun was placed on an altar of silver, and four lamps were kept burning before it, day and night.

This territory obtained the name of *El Dorado*, which means "the gilded," and is variously derived. According to some accounts, it refers to the costume of the emperor, who was anointed every morning with a certain precious and fragrant gum, after which gold-dust was blown upon him through

a tube, till he was encrusted with gold. This the barbarian thought a more magnificent and costly attire than could be afforded by any other potentate in the world. According to others, it was the chief priest who was gilded. All these stories found a ready belief in the minds of the Spaniards, fashioned to credulity by the wonders of the New World, and the obscurity in which much of it long remained involved. They who could believe in the existence of a fountain whose waters had the virtue to restore to youth and beauty the old and decrepit, could have no difficulty in giving their faith to the golden marvels of El Dorado, a region which differed from the known part of the continent only in enjoying a superiority in wealth. The accounts of Peru itself had been equally incredible before being verified by the conquest.

No geographical fiction ever occasioned so vast an expenditure of human life. The attempts to discover this powerful region cost the Spaniards more men and treasure than all their substantial conquests in the New World. A history of the expeditions in search of El Dorado would form a most singularly curious and interesting volume. There is nothing in romance to surpass the wonderful dangers, privations and sufferings, endured by the adventurers in these undertakings. Yet neither the disasters, nor even the almost total destruction of many of the bands, prevented others from following them. New adventurers were found to follow in quick succession; although the former had returned discomfited and disappointed, the last always flattered themselves with the hope that the discovery of El Dorado would be accomplished by them. The mania continued for ages, and was considered by some of the Spanish religionists as a device of the devil to lure mankind to their destruction.

Among these daring spirits was Philip Von Hutten, whose expedition is so much the more worthy of notice, as it was very nearly successful, and actually substantiates a part, at least, of the story of El Dorado. As this singular and interesting portion of American history is probably not familiar to most of our readers, we shall dwell with some minuteness upon its details, particularly as they furnish materials the least equivocal which can be found, respecting the explanation of the great mystery. Von Hutten was one of those German adventurers who formed the first expedition of the Welsers to Venezuela, in 1528. Less savage than his companions, he did not yield

to them in ambition and intrepidity. From the time of his arrival in America, to his death, a period of fifteen years, he seemed scarcely to have enjoyed a single instant of repose. Always on the march, fighting the Indians, living on wild fruit, exposed to all the extremes of an insalubrious climate, his life was a tissue of dangers and sufferings. In the course of his expeditions into the country in 1541, chance led him to a place where he learned that Quesada, one of the conquerors of Santa Fe de Bogota, had just passed with a body of infantry and cavalry, in quest of El Dorado. The news was true. Quesada marched a long distance, suffered much, and discovered nothing. Von Hutten determined to follow in his track, in order to obtain at least a part of the riches of El Dorado, should he arrive too late to share in the conquest.

After many days of incredible fatigue, he reached the province of Papamena. He found there an Indian equally distinguished by his rank and superior understanding. Von Hutten told him of his design. The Indian answered, with every appearance of good faith, that by continuing his march in that direction, he would only find uninhabited countries and deserts, where his men would starve to death. But if he wished, the Indian added, he would conduct him in person to a region abounding in gold and silver; this country was to the east, on the Guayauna, near the Lake of Parima. The Indian even showed him some apples of gold which his brother had lately brought from thence. Von Hutten saw fit to discredit this account, and pursued the route followed by Quesada, taking the Indian with him as a guide. But after a march of eight days, amid all sorts of difficulties and obstructions, the Indian, seeing that nothing could change the resolution of the Christians, took the opportunity of a dark night to escape. His flight, together with the badness of the roads, excited murmurs against the leader of the band, who, however, continued obstinately bent on pushing forward. All the soldiers complained of him for not following the advice of the Indian. He alone remained immovable in his resolution.

A few days after, they discovered a mountain resembling that at the foot of which El Dorado was said to be situated; but, on exploring it, their hopes were disappointed. The army, now reduced by intense fatigue and suffering, were obliged to pass the rainy season here, and endured the most cruel effects of hunger. Ants and reptiles were

their only food. Many of the men swelled up and died in the most excruciating agonies; others lost their hair, their eyebrows, eye-lashes and nails. As soon as the favorable season returned, Von Hutten began his retreat to Coro, then the capital of Venezuela. On his march, he was obstructed by inundations, and halted, till the waters should subside, at a village called Nuestra Senora de Fragoa. While his men were reposing themselves, and thought only of the pleasure of returning home, their commander, irritated at his disappointment, fixed his mind upon new endeavors to retrieve his fortunes. From the Indians of the neighborhood he learnt that there was a region in a certain quarter, richer by far than any that had yet been discovered. The inhabitants, called the Omegas, were represented as a warlike and ferocious race. Other Indians called them Itaguas, but they all agreed as to the topographical situation of the country.

Fired anew with brilliant hopes, Von Hutten determined to march immediately for the Omegas. His army was now reduced to forty men; but as soon as the plains were clear of water, he moved forward. The Indians offered to conduct him safely to the banks of the Guayuava, and they kept their word. He marched to the river by roads tolerably commodious, and there acquired fresh information. The natives told him that the city of Macatoa, through which he must necessarily pass, was on the other side of the river; this he could not cross without a canoe. One of these Indians appeared to him so sincere, that he commissioned him to go and apprise the inhabitants that he was there with forty men, on his way to more distant provinces; and that he requested a passage and the friendship of the natives, to whom he offered his own. The Indian fulfilled this commission, and returned the next morning with the son of the cacique, who was sent by his father to offer his friendship and hospitality to the strangers. Von Hutten, with his men, proceeded to Macatoa, and was received in the kindest manner.

The cacique, being told of their design, informed them that the country of the Omegas was in fact full of gold and silver, but that its population was so great, and so disciplined to war, that their attempt, with so small a body of men, was most rash and impracticable. No prospect of danger or difficulty, however, could shake the inflexible determination of the commander; and he therefore continued his march. The cacique

furnished him with guides as far as the next town, which was distant nine days' journey, and gave him also recommendations to the cacique, who was his friend. This march was performed with tolerable comfort, as the roads through the wilderness were well wrought. The second cacique received the strangers with great affability. Like his friend of Macatoa, he told the general that his undertaking was utterly extravagant and desperate; but he also assured him that all which had been related of the Omegas was true. No nation had ever attacked them with success, and it was contrary to common sense to suppose that forty men, even though they had the strength and courage of lions, could subdue a whole nation highly populous and warlike. These representations, however, did not stagger the obstinate and self-willed leader; and the cacique, finding him resolved to make the attempt, consented to guide him to the country he was seeking; but warning him and his men, at the same time, to bear in mind that he had done his utmost to avert their calamitous fate. All this was heard with coolness and indifference; nothing was thought of but the region of gold and silver.

After four days' march, they arrived at a mountain, on the skirts of which they saw four or five villages surrounded by well-cultivated fields; further off their eyes were ravished by the prospect of a broad and most delightful valley, in which stood a city so extensive as to stretch beyond their view. The streets appeared to be regularly laid out, and the houses well and compactly built. "There," exclaimed the cacique, "is the capital of the Omegas. Behold this famous region whose riches the Spaniards so ardently covet. That edifice in the centre of the city is the dwelling of the governor, and the temple of a number of gods. The population of the place is immense, and the order that is preserved there is admirable. The houses which you see scattered on the sides of the hills round the city are inhabited by those who practise agriculture, while the others exercise the trade of war. Now that you yourself see the strength of these people, you can reflect anew on the temerity of your project. If you persist, I must withdraw, and pray to the gods to protect your lives."

Nothing could now repress the ardor of the adventurers, inflamed by the sight of the object which they had been so long pursuing. They took leave of the cacique, and marched immediately to the city. On approaching some houses, they met a few of

the Indians, who, struck with surprise at the sight of men with beards, white faces, and in strange dresses, instantly took to flight. These were pursued, and Von Hutten unfortunately overtook and seized one of them. The Indian was armed with a lance, and instantly aimed a blow at his adversary, who, finding himself severely wounded between the ribs, quitted his hold, and the Indian escaped. The adventurers soon heard in the city a great noise of drums and other instruments of war, mingled with the most terrific cries. Night was now approaching, and they retreated, carrying off their wounded commander in a hammock.

They passed the night on a neighboring mountain, and the next morning beheld an army of several thousand Indians marching out of the city in pursuit of them. Von Hutten was unable to fight, and resigned the command to his chief officer, Limpias. A battle now ensued, similar to the conflicts between the soldiers of Cortez and the Mexicans. The superior arms, valor and resolution of the Spaniards, enabled them to resist the attacks of an immense throng of assailants. Not one of them were killed; and the Omegas retreated, leaving the field of battle covered with heaps of their slain. But the Spaniards were now convinced of the desperate character of their undertaking, and unanimously agreed that the conquest of the Omegas could not be effected without a much stronger military force. They returned to the cacique who had acted as their guide, and here reposed themselves for some days. The general was cured of his wound, and, after obtaining from the cacique all the information necessary for rendering a second journey more rapid and easy, he took his departure for Coro, intending to organize a new expedition against the Omegas; but before he reached that place, he was assassinated at the instigation of a usurper named Carvajal, who by means of a forged commission had seized upon the government of Venezuela, and did not think himself secure in his usurpation till he had got rid of Von Hutten, who, it seems, had been appointed lieutenant general. His most faithful adherents were also assassinated with him. Such was the close of this memorable expedition, which occupied the space of four years.

Among the numerous adventurers who shared in the expeditions for the discovery of El Dorado, was Sir Walter Raleigh, an Englishman of the highest talent and character. A man of his chivalrous feelings could not but be filled with admiration at

the courage and energy which had been exhibited by the Spaniards in the pursuit of this romantic and brilliant object. Having also a firm belief in the real existence of El Dorado, he determined to make an attempt to discover it himself. The multiplied failures of the Spaniards produced in him a strong conviction, not that they had wasted their strength in pursuit of a phantom, but only that they had missed the right way. In classing Raleigh, however, with the knights-errant of El Dorado, we must, in justice to his memory, state, that his aims were of a far higher order than those of other adventurers. A part of his design was to conquer and colonize Guiana, and thus to extend the sphere of English industry and commerce.

In February, 1595, Raleigh sailed from Plymouth with five vessels and above a hundred soldiers. On arriving at Trinidad, he made prisoner of the governor, Berrio, who was himself preparing an expedition for El Dorado on a magnificent scale. From hence he sailed to the mouth of the Orinoco, the navigation of which was entirely unknown to the English, but which it was necessary to ascend in order to reach the grand object of the voyage. A hundred men embarked in boats, as the ships drew too much water to proceed up the stream. In these they continued to advance for a month, exposed to the open air, sometimes under a burning sun, sometimes amid torrents of rain, with no shelter, and no resting-place but the hard boards of their boats. Raleigh's account of their progress through the labyrinth formed by the numerous outlets of the great stream, of their alternate hopes and fears, wants and fortuitous supplies, the aspect of the country and its productions, the natives and their chiefs, and of their entrance at last into the grand channel of the magnificent Orinoco, — is full of interest and variety, and occasionally presents descriptive passages of great beauty, joined also with traits of most extravagant credulity.

After ascending the river about a hundred and eighty miles, the rapid and terrific rise of its waters compelled them to descend. Raleigh firmly resolved soon to return, took formal possession of the country, and made the caciques swear allegiance to Queen Elizabeth. He returned to England at the end of the summer, and published an account of his voyage, containing, in addition to ascertained facts, many marvellous tales which he had picked up among the Indians. His determination to visit America again

was inflexible, yet it was not till 1613 that he sailed on his new expedition. This was more disastrous than the former, but we have not room to give the particulars.

The belief in the existence of El Dorado could not be eradicated from the minds of the inhabitants in that quarter. So late as the year 1780, a wild Indian presented himself before the governor of Spanish Guiana, declaring that he came from the borders of Lake Parima. He was plied with questions, which he answered with as much perspicuity and precision as could be expected of a savage who spoke mostly by signs. He succeeded in making them understand that on the banks of that lake was a city whose inhabitants were civilized and well disciplined in war. He said much of the beauty of the buildings, the neatness of the streets, the regularity of the squares, and the riches of the people. The roofs of the houses were of gold or silver, and the high priest he said was powdered with gold dust. The Indian sketched on a table with a bit of charcoal a plan of the city. The governor was fully convinced of the truth of his representations, and engaged him to serve as a guide to the place.

A body of Spaniards immediately set out for the discovery. They travelled nearly five hundred leagues to the south, by the most difficult and often frightful paths. Hunger, the swamps, the rocks and the precipices, soon wore them out, and most of them died. When the remainder thought themselves within four or five days' journey of the city, their guide disappeared in the night. This utterly dismayed them. They knew not where they were, and after wandering about for some time, all of them perished except Don Antonio Santos. The idea of disguising himself as an Indian occurred to him. He threw off his clothes, stained his body with *roco*, and introduced himself among the savages by means of the knowledge he possessed of many of their languages. He continued a long time among them, and at length fell into the hands of the Portuguese on the Rio Negro. After a long detention, they sent him home, and he died in Guiana, in 1796.

It is impossible not to entertain a great curiosity as to the true origin of a story which led to such results as we have related. Men of intelligence, judgment, and acuteness, some of whom have resided many years in that country, have announced their serious opinion that the story of El Dorado is not destitute of foundation in reality. Unless we suppose the account of Von Hutten to be a complete fabrication, which does

not appear warrantable, occurring as it does in the work of a respectable historian, we have evidence at least of the existence of a warlike nation, more civilized than the rest of the Indians, who had built on the borders of Lake Parima a large and handsome city. The eminent traveller Humboldt adopts another method of solving the mystery. While engaged in exploring the countries upon the upper Orinoco, he was naturally led to direct his attention to the origin of a tale of such celebrity which was still credited in that quarter. "When near the sources of the Orinoco," he says, "we heard of nothing but the proximity of El Dorado, the Lake Parima, and the *ruins of its capital!*" He attempts to account for the tales of El Dorado in a geological way. According to his conjecture, there may be islets and rocks of micaslate and talc within and around the lake, which, reflecting from their shining surfaces the rays of an ardent sun, appear to form a gorgeous city, whose temples and houses seem to be overlaid with gold and silver. He supposed that this scene was thus formed by the imagination into the gilded metropolis. Humboldt attempted to penetrate to this spot, but was hindered by the Guayacas, a tribe of Indian dwarfs.

The story of El Dorado remains, therefore, still involved in deep obscurity. We cannot, however, withhold our belief that it had some foundation in truth. The reader, perhaps, will be surprised to learn that the region which is pointed out as the locality of this celebrated place has never, to this day, been traversed by a European. Its great distance from the sea, and the impassable wilderness that surrounds it, have repelled the arms of the conqueror from its borders, while the bravery or ferocity of its inhabitants forbids every traveller to approach it. Is it improbable that a great city, or the ruins of one, should exist in this unknown territory? A few years ago, who suspected that the plains and forests of Central America and Yucatan contained those immense and magnificent ruins brought to light by the researches of modern travellers? Cortez, in his march to Mexico, passed within ten miles of the great city of Copan, without hearing of it.

Mr. Stephens does not hesitate to avow his opinion that aboriginal cities may yet be found, in the unexplored regions of South America, peopled by unconquered natives. The probability of such facts is still greater in respect to a district more remote from European establishments, and which possesses positive traditions attesting their existence.



POPE JULIUS II.

THIS extraordinary man was originally a fisherman, but his uncle, Sextus IV., being pope, and seeing that he possessed great talents, caused him to enter the church, where he soon obtained distinction. His ambition was vast, and reaching from point to point, he at last became pope, in 1503.

Although he professed to be the successor of St. Peter, who preached the gospel of peace, Julius did not hesitate to raise armies and make war; and, what is remarkable, he led his armies in person, and in battle displayed all the fierce courage and bold daring of the soldier. At the siege of Mirandola, in 1511, he exposed himself, at the

head of his men, at every point of danger; when a breach in the walls was effected, he entered by a scaling-ladder, sword in hand, being among the very foremost of the headlong assailants.

The great mind of Julius was occupied with many vast projects. In the first place, he desired to restore the see of Rome to its former power; and he made wars, fought battles, and intrigued with kings and princes, to effect this object. He did a good deal, as he thought, to strengthen the power of the popes, and establish, not only the spiritual but temporal dominion of the church; but, while he was pleasing himself

with the idea of success in one direction, we shall see that he was laying the train, in another, by which his schemes were to be finally exploded, and the church itself shaken to its foundations.

Julius was a lover of pleasure, and many tales are told of his vices and immoralities. He was a lover of the fine arts — painting, sculpture, and architecture. Of these he became a patron, and many great artists, particularly Raphael and Michael Angelo, flourished in his time and under his auspices. Julius did a great deal to improve and embellish the Vatican, — the pope's palace at Rome. This building is still one of the wonders of the world, and it would require a large book to describe its hundreds of rooms, and its treasures of art, in painting and sculpture.

Among other great projects, Julius determined to build a cathedral church, one of such majesty and splendor as was suitable to the city of Rome, the seat of the popes, the centre and head of that religion which had not only pervaded the civilized world, but claimed to be the perpetuation and completion of God's dealings with man on earth. The stupendous and admirable church of St. Peter, still standing at Rome, — the wonder of the world and the triumph of art, — was the result of this grand conception.

Julius was a man of great energy, and he set immediately about his darling project. The greatest artists were employed, and the edifice was begun on the 18th April, 1506. It was hurried forward with such expedition that the walls, after they were carried to a great elevation, cracked, and it required the wonderful genius of Michael Angelo to devise the means of remedying the difficulty, and of furnishing the stupendous plans for the final completion of the building.

St. Peter's was not finished till more than a century after both Julius and Michael Angelo had gone down to their graves — so vain are both ambition and genius, in satisfying their own desires. And, as to Julius, this very work, designed, no doubt, to hand down his name with glory to after times, resulted in a very different manner. His various schemes led him into many expenses, and in his need for money he granted the sale of *indulgences* for sins — causing it to be set forth that the money thus obtained was to build the church of St. Peter. Julius seems to have thought it very desirable to erect this noble church; he, perhaps, regarded it as a very laudable and holy enterprise, though doubtless, some

share of selfish ambition was mingled with other feelings. And, further, Julius seems to have thought, for such a great and good object, that he might deal in indulgences — which were pieces of paper, sold for large sums of money, in which the pope declared that the sins committed by persons buying them, were remitted and forgiven of God!

This traffic being carried on to a great extent, roused the famous Martin Luther in opposition to the Church of Rome, and the result was the Reformation, by which the power of the Church of Rome was greatly abridged, and the popes themselves humbled. Thus the ambition of Julius resulted in disgrace to himself, and humiliation to the institution which he so eagerly sought to glorify. He died 1513, aged 70.



TIPPOO SAIB.

THIS monarch, Sultan of Mysore, in Hindostan, was a son of the famous Hyder Ali, and became distinguished in those wars which Great Britain carried on for the purpose of subjecting this portion of India. He was born in 1751, and succeeded his father in 1782. In 1783, he signed a treaty of peace with England, which put an end to the wars that his father had commenced.

Tipu had now a kingdom about twice as large as the State of New York in extent, with an annual revenue of fourteen millions of dollars. The country was thickly peopled and well cultivated; but Tipu was a Mohamedan, and he began to persecute those who differed from him in religious faith. He caused the Brahmins to be cruelly beaten, and such was his rigor towards Christians, that seventy thousand of them left his dominions.

After a time, he became again involved in a war with the English, and Tippoo was besieged by Lord Cornwallis, in his capital of Seringapatam. Reduced to extremity, he agreed to a peace, by the terms of which he was compelled to relinquish one half of his kingdom, and pay the enormous sum of \$15,000,000. This took place in 1792.

Tippoo was a man of great talents and a good deal of pride. He could not well submit to the humiliation he had suffered, and accordingly he again engaged in a war against the English. He had entered into intrigues with the French, and as Bonaparte at this time made his famous expedition into Egypt, it has been supposed that he

expected assistance from Tippoo in an attempt to subjugate India, and strip England of her possessions in that quarter.

The British troops prosecuted the war with vigor, and having defeated the sultan in two pitched battles, he was obliged to retreat to his capital. Here he was again invested, and on the 4th of May, 1799, Seringapatam was carried by storm. Tippoo was slain in the assault, while bravely defending the ramparts, and his kingdom was divided. This monarch, though capricious and cruel, was fond of literature, and had collected an extensive and valuable library, which is still preserved in the university of Calcutta.



Shooting Wild Geese.

MIGRATION OF WILD GEESE.

THE passage of wild geese to the north commences with the breaking up of the ice; their first appearance in Canada and on the shores of Hudson's Bay varying with the forwardness of the spring, from the middle of April to the latter end of May. Their flight is heavy and laborious, but moderately swift, in a straight line when their number is but few, but more frequently in two lines, meeting in a point in front. The van is said to be always led by an old gander in whose wake the others instinctively follow. But should his sagacity fail in discovering the land-marks by which they usually steer, as sometimes happens in foggy weather, the whole flock appear in the greatest distress, and fly about in an irregular manner, making a great clamor. In their flights they cross indiscriminately over land and water, differing in this respect

from several other geese, which prefer making a circuit by water to traversing the land. They also pass far inland, instead of confining their course to the neighborhood of the sea.

So important is the arrival of geese to the inhabitants of these northern regions, that the month in which they first make their appearance is termed by the Indians the *goose moon*. In fact, not only the Indians but the English settlers also depend greatly upon these birds for their subsistence, and many thousands of them are annually killed, a large proportion of which are salted and barrelled for winter consumption. Many, too, that are killed on their return, after the commencement of the frost, are suffered to freeze, and are thus kept as fresh provisions for several months.



Tower of Babel.

SOURCES OF HISTORY.

HISTORY is a record of past events. *Sacred* history is the account that is given us in the Bible; this furnishes the only authentic history of the creation of the world, and the things that immediately happened. It is the only book that tells us of Adam and Eve; of Cain and Abel; of the tower of Babel, and the confusion of tongues; of the flood of waters; of Noah and his family; of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; of David and Solomon; and generally of the Jewish nation, and the way of salvation to man, through the Redeemer.

Profane history means that which is written by men, in distinction from sacred history, which is written by the inspiration of God. Profane history, when it would tell us of the early ages of the world, has a great mixture of fable, and is very uncertain in its representations. This is the fact with the history of Greece. It is chiefly furnished by the poets, who picked up stories handed down by tradition, and embellished them with fictions of their own. Thus they heard marvellous tales about a man called Jupiter, that lived in remote ages; and was celebrated alike for his wisdom, for his extensive possessions, and the influence he exercised over the people around him. The poets began to weave up stories about Jupiter; one said he did this, another said he did that. So they went on, each trying to exceed the other in some wonderful tale of this wonderful man.

The people listened eagerly to these stories; and thus encouraged, the poets went on composing songs and ballads, until they had made out Jupiter to be a god who lived on Mount Olympus, manufacturing thunder and lightning, ruling over the land and the sea, controlling the seasons, swaying man-

kind, and governing the whole troop of gods and goddesses throughout the world. This is the way the fiction of Jupiter was devised and executed, and may serve as a hint at the means by which the whole mythology of Egypt, Greece, and Rome was fabricated.

Thus it is that nearly all the earlier portions of profane history are to be regarded as doubtful. There are, indeed, certain portions of it, which may be received as true; such, for instance, as are derived from monuments now existing, and bearing certain inscriptions. There are in Egypt, in Greece, in various parts of Asia and Europe, very ancient pyramids, obelisks, and edifices, bearing inscriptions or carvings, either of writings or pictorial representations, which furnish us with dates, facts, and occurrences, serving to establish epochs, or great events, thus giving consistency and certainty to the leading features of history. It is in this way that the framework of the more ancient parts of history is made out and established; and so much may be deemed worthy of credit. Most of the details and lesser incidents, such as the extraordinary feats of individuals, the extravagant numbers said to be engaged in particular battles; and, in short, all the more marvellous portions of ancient history, are to be deemed entire fictions, or poetic embellishments and exaggerations.

Among the most interesting of ancient remains, which contribute to make out the story of mankind, are the paintings recently discovered in the chambers of the ruins of ancient Thebes, in Egypt. These tell us, without leaving room for doubt, how the Egyptians dressed themselves; what they ate and drank; how they broiled, boiled, and fried; how they combed their heads and



Ancient Egyptian picture.

arrayed their hair; how they slept; how they amused themselves; what armor they had in battle; how they fought; how they worshipped—and, indeed, how they lived, and felt, and thought, and acted.

Besides these paintings, the hieroglyphics, or picture-writings of the Egyptians, graven on obelisks, and other monuments, afford great aid to the historians. When Bonaparte went with a French army to Egypt, he took a great many learned men with him. These looked at these hieroglyphics with intense interest and curiosity, and longed to find out the means of reading them—for this art had not then been discovered. These persons were infidels, and not believing the Bible, they wished to be able to prove it untrue. "If we could read

these inscriptions," said they, as they stood before the hieroglyphics upon the monuments of Thebes, "if we could read these, we could prove the Old Testament to be false."

After a few years, a very ingenious Frenchman, by the name of Champollion, went to Egypt, and studied profoundly into these mysterious hieroglyphics. At last, he happened to hit upon the art of reading some of them, and was thus able to make out their meaning. The result has been very different from what the French philosophers supposed; for, instead of exploding the Scriptures, these Egyptian writings afford very strong additional evidence of their truth.

Another satisfactory source of authentic



Ancient Greek Temple in ruins.

history is afforded by the remains of Greek sculptures, found upon the ancient temples. Many of these have been carried to London, and deposited in museums, where they have been very thoroughly examined, thus

furnishing rich materials for the historian. Other sculptures, particularly statues, have been discovered in Greece, which furnish many interesting facts.

The coins that are found in different

parts of the world have contributed not a little to give certainty to portions of ancient history, particularly that of Rome. In Europe there are antiquarians who have devoted whole lives and ample fortunes to the collecting of coins. For a scarce coin, even of copper, and of itself not worth as much as one cent, hundreds of dollars have often been paid, merely because it was very rare. In some of the European collections, there are complete, or nearly complete, sets of coins of all the emperors of Rome; and, as these have the likenesses of the emperors upon them, we have handed down to us the image and superscription of every one of these successors of the Cæsars.

Besides these sources of history, we have the writings, either perfect, or in part, of several ancient authors. Among the Greeks are Aristotle and Plato, who were philosophers; Homer, the greatest of poets; Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon, historians. Among the Egyptians, Ptolemy, the greatest of the ancient astronomers, and the father of geography. Among the Romans, we have Cornelius Nepos, Cæsar, Livy, and Sallust, historians; Plutarch, a biographer, and many others, in different branches of literature.

Rome, in its days of glory, had extended her conquests over the most civilized and

populous portions of the world. Indeed, she stretched her authority on every side, and brought under her dominion nearly every portion of the known world. All Europe was subject to her sway; all Africa, contiguous to the Mediterranean Sea; all the middle, western, and northern portions of Asia. Over these vast dominions her armies marched, and her messengers passed to and fro. The art of writing was then extensively practised, and though printing was unknown, still the means of communicating and diffusing exact knowledge were possessed in all parts of the extended empire. This period of Roman history, therefore, abounded in materials for history.

But in the fifth century of the Christian era, Rome fell like a dismembered edifice, and its trampled ruins were parcelled out and possessed by barbarians. Her arts and her literature were, for a time, buried in the mighty wreck. It was left to the priests in the monasteries, during the dark ages, to delve and dig out these literary treasures. To them we are indebted for preserving nearly all that remains.

In 1444, the art of printing was invented; that is, the art of multiplying records and copies of human writings. This is the art of arts; the triumph of human skill; the greatest civilizer of society.



PASSAGE OF MOUNTAINS IN INDIA.

AMONG the interesting accounts of elephants, the following, furnished by a British officer in India, is particularly pleasing. It must be premised, that it is sometimes necessary for armies to cross the mountainous regions of this country. It is always a difficult, and not unfrequently a dangerous business; the elephants being so clumsy, and withal so heavy, that a single misstep might prove fatal, not only to them, but to all who accompany them. The following

is an account of the manner in which the guns belonging to a regiment were conveyed, by means of elephants, over a high hill, or *ghaut*, as it is called.

“Having cut a good deal of the most prominent part of the hill away, and laid trees on the ascent as a footing for the elephants, these animals were made to approach it, which the first did with some reluctance and fear. He looked up, shook his head, and when forced by his driver,

roared piteously. There can be no question, that this sagacious animal was competent, instinctively to judge of the practicability of the artificial flight of steps thus constructed; for, the moment some little alteration had been made, he seemed willing to approach.

"He then commenced his examination and scrutiny, by pressing with his trunk the trees that had been thrown across; and after this he put his fore legs upon them, with great caution, raising the fore part of his body, so as to throw its weight on them. This done, he seemed satisfied as to their stability. The next step for him to ascend by was a projecting rock, which we could not remove. Here the same sagacious examination took place, the elephant keeping his side close to the side of the bank, and leaning against it. The next step was upon a tree; but this, on the first pressure of his trunk, he did not like. Here his driver made use of the most tender epithets, such as, 'Wonderful, my life!'—'Well done, my dear!'—'My dove!'—'My son!'—'My wife!' But all these endearing appellations, of which elephants are so fond, would not induce him to try again. Force was at length resorted to, and the elephant roared terrifically, but would not move. Something was then removed; he seemed satisfied, as before; and thus, in time, ascended that stupendous ghaut. On his reaching the top, his delight was visible in a most eminent degree; he caressed his keepers, and threw the dirt about in a very playful manner.

"Another elephant, a much younger animal, was now to follow. He had watched the ascent of the other with the most intense interest, making motions all the while, as though he was assisting him by shouldering him up the acclivity; such gestures as I have seen some men make, when spectators of gymnastic exercises. When he saw his comrade up, he evinced his pleasure by giving a salute, something like the sound of a trumpet. When called upon to take his turn, he seemed much alarmed, and would not act at all without force. When he was two steps up, he slipped, but recovered himself by digging his toes in the earth. With the exception of this little accident, he ascended exceedingly well. When this elephant was near the top, the other, who had already performed his task, extended his trunk to the assistance of his brother in distress, round which the young animal entwined his, and thus reached the summit of the ghaut in safety.

"Having both accomplished their task,

their greeting was as cordial as if they had been long separated from each other, and had just escaped from some perilous achievement. They mutually embraced each other and stood face to face for a considerable time, as if whispering congratulations. Their driver then made them *salam* or bow to the general, who ordered them five rupees each, for sweetmeats. On this reward of their merit being ordered, they immediately returned thanks by another *salam*."



EUGENE ARAM.

THE life of this man is fraught with deep interest, and affords a striking moral. Though born in humble circumstances, and therefore only provided with the means of a narrow education, by the force of talent and industry he improved his mind, and made himself master of a wide field of knowledge. His station was now respectable in the eyes of the world, and he had all the requisite means to insure happiness. One thing only did he lack, yet that thing which is necessary to the preservation of every earthly good,—virtue. In an evil hour he was tempted to the commission of a horrid crime. Though this was shielded by darkness; though years rolled away without suspicions or detection; though a fair outside was carefully preserved; though he left the scene of his depravity, and doubtless believed he had forever buried his guilt in oblivion,—still the All-seeing eye was upon him, and He who rules over events, as if to show how vain is human ingenuity in attempting to shelter the murderer, at last brought him to justice. On his trial, he displayed wonderful powers of

reasoning, but even these now only served to heighten his guilt in the eyes of mankind. How short-sighted is the man who attempts to attain happiness by unlawful means; which, even if successful, must make every cup of life bitter as gall; and, if unsuccessful, must bring judgment, and agony, and shame!

During the confinement of this remarkable person on the charge of murder, he wrote an account of his own life, from which we learn that one of his ancestors had been high sheriff of Yorkshire, in the reign of King Edward III., but the family having been gradually reduced, his father occupied a humble station in life. The son, however, was sent to a school near Rippon, where he perfected himself in writing and arithmetic, and then went to London to officiate as clerk to a merchant.

After a residence of two years in town, he was seized with the small-pox, which left him in so weak a condition, that he went back to Yorkshire, for the recovery of his health. On his recovery, he found it necessary to do something for immediate subsistence; and accordingly engaged himself as usher to a boarding-school; but, not having been taught the learned languages in his youth, he was obliged to supply by industry what he had failed to obtain from neglect. Thus, while teaching writing and arithmetic, by employing all his leisure hours in the most intense study, he at length became an excellent Greek and Latin scholar. In the year 1734, he engaged to officiate as steward of an estate belonging to Mr. Norton, of Knaresborough; and while in this station he acquired a competent knowledge of the Hebrew. At this period he married, but was far from being happy in his matrimonial connection.

We shall now relate the circumstances which led to the commission of the crime which cost Aram his life. Daniel Clarke, a shoemaker, at Knaresborough, after being married a few days, circulated a report that his wife was entitled to a considerable fortune, which he should soon receive. Hereupon, Aram and Richard Houseman, conceiving hopes of making advantage of this circumstance, persuaded Clarke to make an ostentatious show of his own riches, to induce his wife's relations to give him that fortune of which he had boasted.

Clarke was easily induced to comply with a hint so agreeable to his own desires; on which he borrowed and bought on credit a large quantity of silver-plate, with jewels, watches, rings, &c. He told the persons

of whom he purchased, that a merchant in London had sent him an order to buy such plate for exportation; and no doubt was entertained of his credit till his sudden disappearance, in February, 1745, when it was imagined that he had gone abroad, or to London, to dispose of his ill-acquired property.

When Clarke was possessed of these goods, Aram and Houseman determined to murder him, in order to share the booty; and on the night of the eighth of February, 1745, they persuaded Clarke to walk with them in the fields, in order to consult with them on the proper method to dispose of the effects.

On this plan, they walked into a field, at a small distance from the town, by the name of St. Robert's Cave. When they came to this field, Aram and Clarke went over a hedge, towards the cave, and when they had got within six or seven yards of it, Houseman (by the light of the moon) saw Aram strike Clarke several times, and, at length, beheld him fall, but never saw him afterwards. This was the state of the affair, if Houseman's testimony on the trial is to be credited.

The murderers, going home, shared Clarke's ill-gotten treasure, the half of which Houseman concealed in his garden, for a twelvemonth, and then took it to Scotland, where he sold it. In the mean time Aram carried his share to London, where he sold it to a Jew, and then engaged himself as an usher at an academy in Piccadilly; where, in the intervals of duty in attending to his scholars, he made himself master of the French language, and acquired some knowledge of Arabic and other eastern tongues.

After this, he was usher at other schools, in different parts of the kingdom; but as he did not correspond with his friends in Yorkshire, it was presumed that he was dead. The sudden disappearance of Clarke had long been forgotten; but, in the year 1758, as a man was digging for limestone near St. Robert's Cave, he found the bones of a human body, and a conjecture hereupon arose that they were the remains of Clarke, who, it was now presumed, might have been murdered.

Houseman having been seen in company with Clarke a short time before his disappearance, was apprehended on suspicion; and, on his examination, giving but too evident signs of his guilt, he was committed to York castle. The bones of the deceased being shown to him, he denied that they were those of Clarke, but directed to the

precise spot where he said they were deposited, and where they were accordingly found. The skull being fractured, was preserved, to be produced in evidence on the trial.

Soon after Houseman was committed to the castle of York, it was discovered that Aram lived at Lynn, in Norfolk; on which a warrant was granted for taking him into custody; and, being apprehended while instructing some young gentlemen at a school, he was conveyed to York, and likewise committed to the castle. At the Lent assizes following, the prosecutors were not ready with their evidence, on which he was remanded till the summer assizes, when he was brought to trial.

When Houseman had given his evidence respecting this extraordinary affair, and all such collateral testimony had been taken as could be adduced on such an occasion, Aram was called upon for his defence; but, having foreseen that the perturbation of his spirits would incapacitate him to make such a defence without previous preparation, he had written the following, which, by permission, he read in court:—

“My Lord:—I know not whether it is of right, or through some indulgence of your lordship, that I am allowed the liberty at this bar to attempt a defence, incapable and uninstructed as I am, to speak. Since, while I see so many eyes upon me, so numerous and awful a concourse, fixed with attention, and filled with—I know not what expectancy,—I labor not with guilt, my lord, but with perplexity. For, having never seen a court but this,—being wholly unacquainted with law, the customs of the bar, and all judiciary proceedings,—I fear I shall be so little capable of speaking with propriety in this place, that it exceeds my hope if I shall be able to speak at all.

“I have heard, my lord, the indictment read, wherein I find myself charged with the highest crime,—with an enormity of which I am altogether incapable; to the commission of which, there goes far more insensibility of heart, more profligacy of morals, than ever fell to my lot;—and nothing, possibly, could have admitted a presumption of this nature, but a depravity not inferior to that imputed to me. However, as I stand indicted at your lordship's bar, and have heard what is called evidence adduced in support of such a charge, I very humbly solicit your lordship's patience, and beg the hearing of this respectable audience, while I, single and unskilful, destitute of friends, and unassisted by counsel,

say something, perhaps, like argument in my defence. I shall consume but little of your lordship's time. What I have to say will be short, and this brevity, probably, will be the best part of it; however, it is offered with all possible regard and the greatest submission to your lordship's consideration, and that of this honorable court.

“First, my lord, the whole tenor of my conduct in life contradicts every particular of this indictment. Yet I had never said this, did not my present circumstances extort it from me, and seem to make it necessary. Permit me here, my lord, to call upon malignity, itself, so long and cruelly busied in this prosecution, to charge upon me any immorality, of which prejudice was not the author. No, my lord; I concerted no scheme of fraud; projected no violence, injured no man's person, or private property. My days were honestly laborious, and my nights intensely studious; and I humbly conceive my notice of this, especially at this time, will not be thought impertinent or unseasonable, but, at least, deserving some attention; because, my lord, that any person, after a temperate use of life, a series of thinking and acting regularly, without one single deviation from sobriety, should plunge into the very depth of profligacy, precipitately and at once, is altogether improbable and unprecedented, and absolutely inconsistent with the course of things. Mankind is never corrupted at once; villany is always progressive, and declines from right, step after step, till every regard of probity is lost, and every sense of all moral obligation totally perishes.

“Again, my lord, a suspicion of this kind, which nothing but malevolence could entertain and ignorance propagate, is violently opposed by my very situation at that time, with respect to health; for, but a little space before, I was confined to my bed, and suffered under a very long and severe disorder, and was not able, for half a year together, so much as to walk. The distemper left me, indeed, yet slowly, and in part; but so macerated, so enfeebled, that I was reduced to crutches; and, so far from being well about the time I am charged with the fact, that I never, to this day, have perfectly recovered. Could, then, a person in this condition, take anything into his head so extravagant?—I, past the vigor of my age, feeble and valetudinary, with no inducement to engage, with no ability to accomplish, no weapon wherewith to perpetrate, such a feat, without interest, without power, without motive, without means!

"Besides, it must needs occur to every one, that an action of this atrocious nature is never heard of, but, when its springs are laid open, it appears that it was to support some indolence, or supply some luxury ; to satisfy some avarice, or oblige some malice ; to prevent some real or some imaginary want : yet I lay not under the influence of any of these. Surely, my lord, I may, consistently with both truth and modesty, affirm this much, and none who have any veracity, and know me, will ever question it.

"In the second place, the disappearance of Clarke is suggested as an argument of his being dead ; but the uncertainty of such an inference from that, and the fallibility of all conclusions of such a sort, from such a circumstance, are too obvious and too notorious to require instances ; yet, superseding many, permit me to procure a very recent one, and that afforded by this castle. In June, 1757, William Thompson, for all the vigilance of this place, in open daylight, and double-ironed, made his escape ; and, notwithstanding an immediate inquiry set on foot, the strictest search, and all advertisement, was never seen or heard of since. If, then, Thompson got off unseen through all these difficulties, how very easy was it for Clarke, when none of them opposed him ? But what would be thought of a prosecution commenced against any one seen last with Thompson ?

"Permit me, next, my lord, to observe a little upon the bones which have been discovered. It is said, which, perhaps, is saying very far, that these are the skeleton of a man. It is possible, indeed, they may be ; but is there any certain criterion which incontestibly distinguishes the sex in human bones ? Let it be considered, my lord, whether the ascertaining this point ought not to precede any attempt to identify them.

"The place of their depositum, too, claims much more attention than is commonly bestowed upon it ; for, of all places in the world, none could have mentioned any one wherein there was greater certainty of finding human bones than a hermitage, except he should point out a churchyard ; hermitages, in times past, being not only places of religious retirement, but of burial too. And it has scarce or never been heard of, but that every cell now known contains, or contained, these relics of humanity, some mutilated and some entire. I do not inform, but give me leave to remind, your lordship, that here sat solitary sanctity, and here the hermit or the anchoress, who hoped for that

repose to their bones when dead, which they here enjoyed when living.

"All the while, my lord, I am sensible this is known to your lordship and many in this court better than to me. But it seems necessary to my case, that others, who have not at all, perhaps, adverted to things of this nature, and may take an interest in my trial, should be made acquainted with it. Suffer me, then, my lord, to produce a few of many evidences that these cells were used as repositories of the dead, and to enumerate a few in which human bones have been found, as it happened in this question ; lest to some that accident might seem extraordinary, and, consequently, occasion prejudice. First. The bones, as was supposed, of the Saxon St. Dubritius, were discovered buried in his cell, at Guy's Cliff, near Warwick, as appears from the authority of Sir William Dugdale. Second. The bones thought to be those of the anchoress Rosia, were but lately discovered, in a cell at Royston, entire, fair, and undecayed, though they must have lain interred for several centuries, as is proved by Dr. Stukeley. Third. But my own country, nay, almost this neighborhood, supplies another instance ; for, in January, 1747, were found, by Mr. Stovin, accompanied by a reverend gentleman, the bones, in part, of some recluse, in the cell at Lindholm, near Hatfield. They were supposed to be those of William of Lindholm, a hermit, who had long made this cave his habitation. Fourth. In February, 1744, part of Woburn Abbey being pulled down, a large portion of a corpse appeared, even with the flesh on, which bore cutting with a knife, though it is certain this had lain above two hundred years, and how much longer is doubtful ; for the abbey was founded in 1145, and dissolved in 1538 or '39. What would have been said, what believed, if this had been an accident to the bones in question ?

"Further, my lord, it is not yet out of living memory, that a little distance from Knaresborough, in a field, part of the manor of the worthy and patriotic baronet who does that borough the honor to represent it in parliament, were found, in digging for gravel, not one human skeleton only, but five or six, deposited side by side, with each an urn placed at its head, as your lordship knows was usual in ancient interments. About the same time, and in another field, almost close to this borough, was discovered also, in searching for gravel, another human skeleton ; but the piety of the same worthy gentleman ordered both pits to be filled up

again, commendably unwilling to disturb the dead.

"Is the invention of these bones forgotten, then, or industriously concealed, that the discovery of those in question may appear the more singular and extraordinary? whereas, in fact, there is nothing extraordinary in it. My lord, almost every place conceals such remains; in fields, in hills, in highway-sides, in commons, lie frequent and unsuspected bones; and our present allotments for rest for the departed are but of some centuries.

"Another particular seems not to claim a little of your lordship's notice, and that of the gentlemen of the jury, which is that, perhaps, no example occurs of more than one skeleton being found in one cell; and, in the cell in question was found but one; agreeable, in this, to the peculiarity of every other known cell in Britain. Not the invention of one skeleton, but of two, would have appeared suspicious and uncommon.

"But it seems another skeleton has been discovered by some laborer, which was full as confidently averred to be Clarke's as this. My lord, must some of the living, if it promotes some interest, be made answerable for all the bones that earth has concealed, and chance exposed? and might not a place where bones lay be mentioned by a person by chance, as well as found by a laborer by chance? or is it more criminal accidentally to name where bones lie, than accidentally to find where they lie?

"Here, too, is a human skull produced, which is fractured; but was this the cause, or was it the consequence, of death? was it owing to violence, or was it the effect of natural decay? If it was violence, was it before or after death? My lord, in May, 1732, the remains of William, lord-archbishop of this province, were taken up, by permission, in this cathedral, and the bones of the skull were found broken! yet certainly he died by no violence offered to him alive, that could occasion that fracture there.

"Let it be considered, my lord, that upon the dissolution of religious houses, and the commencement of the reformation, the ravages of those times affected both the living and the dead. In search after imaginary treasures, coffins were broken up, graves and vaults dug open, monuments ransacked, and shrines demolished; and it ceased about the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. I entreat your lordship, suffer not the violences, the depredations, and iniquities of those times to be imputed to this.

"Moreover, what gentleman is ignorant

that Knaresborough had a castle, which, though now a ruin, was once considerable, both for its strength and garrison? All know it was vigorously besieged by the arms of parliament; at which siege, in sallies, conflicts, flights, pursuits, many fell in the places around it, and where they fell were buried; for every place, my lord, is burial-earth in war; and many, questionless, of these rest yet unknown, whose bones futurity shall yet discover.

"I hope, with all imaginable submission, that what has been said will not be thought impertinent to this indictment; and that it will be far from the wisdom, the learning, and the integrity of this place, to impute to the living, what zeal in its fury may have done; what nature may have done; what nature may have taken off, and piety interred; or what war alone may have destroyed, alone deposited.

"As to the circumstances that have been raked together, I have nothing to observe, but that all circumstances whatever are precarious, and have too frequently been found lamentably fallible; even the strongest have failed. They may rise to the utmost degree of probability, yet they are probability still. Why need I name to your lordship the two Harrisons, recorded by Dr. Howell, who both suffered upon circumstances, because of the sudden disappearance of their lodger, who was in credit, had contracted debts, borrowed money, and went off unseen, and returned a great many years after their execution? Why name the intricate affair of Jacques de Moulin, under King Charles II., related by a gentleman who was counsel for the crown? And why the unhappy Coleman, who suffered innocent, though convicted upon positive evidence, and whose children perished for want, because the world uncharitably believed the father guilty? Why mention the perjury of Smith, incautiously admitted king's evidence, who, to screen himself, equally accused Faircloth and Loveday of the murder of Dunn; the first of whom, in 1749, was executed at Winchester; and Loveday was about to suffer at Reading, had not Smith been proved to be perjured, to the satisfaction of the court, by the surgeon of the Gosport hospital?

"Now, my lord, having endeavored to show that the whole of this process is altogether repugnant to every part of my life; that it is inconsistent with my condition of health about that time; that no rational inference can be drawn that a person is dead who suddenly disappears; that hermitages

were the constant repositories of the bones of the recluse ; that the revolutions in religion, or the fortunes of war, have mangled or buried the dead ; the conclusion remains perhaps no less reasonably than impatiently wished for. I, at last, after a year's confinement, equal to either fortune, put myself upon the candor, the justice, and the humanity of your lordship, and upon yours, my countrymen, gentlemen of the jury."

Aram was tried by Judge Noel, who, having remarked that this defence was one of the most ingenious pieces of reasoning that had ever fallen under his notice, summed up the evidence to the jury, who gave a verdict of guilty ; in consequence of which he received sentence of death.

After conviction, a clergyman was appointed to attend him, and to exhort him to an ample confession. Aram appeared to pay proper attention to what was said, but after the minister had retired, he formed the resolution of destroying himself ; and when the morning appointed for his execution arrived, the keeper, on proceeding to take him out of his cell, was surprised to find him almost expiring through loss of blood, having cut his left arm, above the elbow and near the wrist, with a razor. A surgeon being sent for, stopped the bleeding, but when he was taken to the place of execution, he was so very weak as to be unable to join in devotion with the clergyman who attended him.

On the table in his cell was found the following paper, containing his reasons for attempting to commit suicide :—"What am I better than my fathers ? To die is natural and necessary. Perfectly sensible of this, I fear no more to die than I did to be born. But the manner of it is something which should, in my opinion, be decent and manly. I think I have regarded both these points. Certainly nobody has a better right to dispose of man's life than himself ; and he, not others, should determine how. As for any indignities offered to my body, or silly reflections on my faith and morals, they are, as they always were, things indifferent to me. I think, though contrary to the common way of thinking, I wrong no man by this, and hope it is not offensive to the eternal Being, that formed me and the world. And as by this I injure no man, no man can reasonably be offended. I solicitously recommend myself to the eternal and almighty Being, the God of nature, if I have done amiss. But, perhaps, I have not ; and I hope this thing will never be imputed to me. Though I am now stained

by malevolence, and suffer by prejudice, I hope to rise fair and unblemished. My life was not polluted, my morals were irreproachable, and my opinions orthodox. I slept sound till three o'clock, awaked, and wrote these lines :—

"Come, pleasing rest, eternal slumber, fall,
Seal mine, that once must seal the eyes of all ;
Calm and composed, my soul her journey takes,
No guilt that troubles, and no heart that aches ;
Adieu ! thou sun ; all bright, like her, arise ;
Adieu ! fair friends, and all that's good and wise."

In some of the accounts published of Aram's trial, a letter is quoted, as written to one of his friends, confessing his guilt ; but this document is understood to have been forged, for the purpose of pleasing the illiterate jurymen who condemned him, and who were incapable of appreciating the admirable reasoning contained in his defence. He was executed near York, on the sixth of August, 1759, and afterwards hung in chains in Knaresborough forest.



GENGHIS KHAN.

THIS man, whose name is often spelled *Zingis* Khan, according to the records of history, must have been one of the most remarkable of the Tartar chiefs who have been celebrated in the annals of Central Asia. In this portion of the East is an elevated plain of vast extent, which has long been occupied by tribes living chiefly by pasturage and plunder. They have some camels ; but horses are their favorite and principal beasts of burden.

In the twelfth century, these scattered tribes were combined and led to conquest by the address of the famous Zingis. He had a great talent for war, and soon formed the plan of subjugating the whole of Asia. His army amounted to 700,000 men. Having conquered the whole of Tartary, he turned his army against the Chinese empire. He soon broke through the great wall, captured eighty cities, and extorted from the empire an immense tribute of gold, silver, silk, and horses. After a time, he came again, and besieged Pekin, the capital. Though obstinately resisted, he finally took the place, and added the five northern prov-

inces of China to his empire. He now turned his victorious arms to the west, and such was his success, that his empire extended from Asia Minor to the borders of the Pacific. The ravages committed by his armies were terrible; the lives lost in battle can hardly be counted; learning and refinement were trampled under foot; libraries were converted into stalls, and the "leaves of the Koran," say the Mohammedan writers, "were used to litter the horses!"

Zingis lived to a great age, and is said to have regretted his devastations in his latter days. He died in 1226, and was the greatest of the "Great Moguls."



THE GIRAFFE.

THE above is a picture of the tallest animal that is known. He measures almost six yards from the ground to the top of his ears. He is as tall as a small house.

The giraffe lives in the wilds of Africa; he is never tamed and put to work like the horse. His skin is fawn-colored, with black spots. He is a timid creature, and runs away as fast as he can scamper, whenever a man comes near.

Sometimes the lion attacks the giraffe;

his only defence in such a case is to turn round and kick the lion as hard as he can. Sometimes he succeeds in defending himself in this way, but often he falls a victim to the fierce king of beasts.

The giraffe is occasionally caught and carried to Paris and London and this country. There have been several in the United States; but they are tender creatures, and are very apt to die if taken away from their native country.



Apollo.



Jupiter.

HEATHEN MYTHOLOGY.

A GREAT many years ago, the people, over all civilized Europe and a part of Asia, believed in gods whom they called Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, Apollo, &c. They believed in goddesses too, such as Juno, Venus, Vesta, &c.

These people built temples in honor of their gods and goddesses, many of which were very splendid. In these temples they had statues of the particular gods to whom they were dedicated. Here, also, there were priests, who offered sacrifices to the gods, such as bulls, sheep, birds, &c.

This system, having its origin in the fancy of man, was called *Mythology*—which means a religion of fables. It is supposed to have been commenced by the Egyptians, three or four thousand years ago, when the greater part of the world was in a state of barbarism, or, perhaps, uninhabited by man.

This mythology, or religion of fables, probably began in this way. Some poet, having heard of the great deeds of some warrior, made a poem about him, and not only told things which he did, but some things which he did not. He represented him as having power above other men, and as having performed deeds which man, alone, could not do.

Some other poet, afterwards, took up the story, and added other wonderful tales about this great warrior. The story thus begun, would increase very fast; for it is easy to tell great stories, and very easy for ignorant people to believe them too. Thus, in the course of two generations, the warrior became a being quite above mankind, and therefore a god.

When once such a system was begun, it was quite natural that it should increase. Every man of lively imagination could in-

vent a god or a goddess, and the people were likely to adopt them, as fast as they could be manufactured. The priests and poets had both an interest in carrying on this business, for they either got a living by it, or gained power, fame and consequence among the people.

The Greeks, for many ages after they settled their country, which took place above three thousand five hundred years ago, held constant communication with Egypt. To this country they went for education and for the arts. They not only imitated their buildings, furniture and customs, but they adopted the Egyptian religion also. The Greeks were, however, a people of a great deal of genius. Beginning with Egyptian arts and customs, they modified or changed them, by the suggestions of their own taste and fancy. Thus, in time, they soon became superior, in many things, to the Egyptians, who were their schoolmasters.

The mythology of the Egyptians was therefore changed, in the hands of the lively and inventive Greeks; and, indeed, it became so different, that it received the name at last of the Grecian mythology. A large part of the poetry and literature of the Greeks was filled with the achievements of their gods and goddesses. Men of the greatest genius, such as Homer, Hesiod, Anacreon, and others, wrote splendid pieces about the fabulous deities; and the people believed them to be true.

According to these poets, Jupiter or Jove was the greatest of the gods. He was represented in the temples, as sitting on a throne, with the eagle, the most powerful of birds, at his side, as an emblem of his superiority. In his hand, he held thunderbolts, ready to hurl them forth upon his enemies. He was

supposed to reside chiefly upon Olympus, a tall mountain of Greece, where he held councils with his deities.

The early history of Jupiter, as told by the poets, is droll enough. The ancients knew very little about astronomy or geography. So they divided the universe into three great kingdoms—the heavens, the earth, and the infernal regions. Titan, a powerful king, gave Saturn the kingdom of the earth, upon condition that he should kill all his male children. Saturn married a woman by the name of Ops. They had several children, but as soon as a boy was born, Saturn always ate him up.

At last Jupiter was born—and Ops determined to save him. Accordingly, she gave Saturn a stone, and told him it was the boy. Saturn devoured it—and did not discover the cheat. This is a hard story, but the Greeks believed it, and we must not laugh at them, for we see things quite as foolish in our day. The Mormons, who live in Illinois, believe that one Joe Smith, a deceitful man, found certain brass plates, written over with a revelation from God, which he alone could translate; and they think this translation, which they call the Book of Mormon, is as true as the Bible. Certain people, even amongst us, have been deluded and misled by a man who predicted that the world was to be speedily destroyed. These things teach us how easy it is to be deceived in religious matters, and how careful we should be not to adopt new and singular notions upon this important subject.

Jupiter, having escaped his father's jaws,

was nursed by a goat. When he was a year old, he was a prodigious fellow. By this time the Titans had imprisoned his father, Saturn. So Jupiter made war upon them; he released his father, and conquered heaven, earth and hell. Heaven and earth he reserved to himself; the sea he gave to Neptune, and the lower regions to Pluto.

Jupiter was supposed to be immortal, and of boundless power; but he yet had the passions of a man. Many of his actions, as detailed by the Grecian poets, would be regarded by us as very base, selfish and wicked, and worthy of being punished by confinement in the penitentiary. Such is the character of the chief god, in a system of man's invention. Does not this show us that the religion of the Bible, which reveals to us a God pure, holy, just and good, is of divine origin? Does it not also show us the danger of taking anything for religion such as Mormonism, or any other mythology which comes from man?

Apollo was the name of several gods, and this has led to some confusion. The great Apollo was the son of Jupiter and Latona. Jupiter's regular wife was Juno, a fierce, proud goddess, who hated Latona, and sent a prodigious serpent, called Python, to torment her. In order to protect her, Jupiter raised up a beautiful island, called Delos, in the sea, to which Latona retired. Here Apollo was born, and when he grew up he became the god of the fine arts, music, poetry, painting, &c. His adventures, as detailed by the ancient Greek poets, are quite interesting.



Vulcan.



Pluto.

Vulcan was the god of blacksmiths and all who wrought by fire in iron. He was the son of Jupiter and Juno, and appears to have been so hideous that his mother was ashamed of him. However, he seems to have loved his mother—for on one occasion, she having behaved ill, Jupiter tied her up. Vulcan, however, let her loose;

for this he paid dearly, however, as his father, being greatly incensed, gave him a tremendous kick, which sent him out of heaven. He was no less than nine days and nights in tumbling down to earth; it is no wonder, then, that he broke his leg in falling upon the island of Lemnos, where he alighted. He was lame ever after.

Pluto was the king of hell, or the regions which lay beneath the earth. Here he reigned over his dark, dismal, and gloomy regions, peopled by the souls of departed men. Such was his savage character, and the horrid gloom of his dominions, that nobody would marry him. Still, as he

wanted a wife, he determined to have one by hook or by crook. So one day, as he was driving along in his chariot, in the island of Sicily, he saw a beautiful goddess, named Proserpine, surrounded by her nymphs. Pluto drove up, seized the lovely deity, and carried her off. With his trident he opened a passage in the earth, down which he drove headlong, and having arrived at home, Proserpine became queen of hell.

Mercury was the messenger of the gods, especially of Jupiter. He was also the patron of travellers and shepherds, and had a kindness, I am sorry to say it, for thieves, pickpockets, and rogues of all kinds. It



Mars.



Mercury.

would seem that such a god could hardly be respectable; yet I believe that he was rather a favorite with the Greeks.

Mars was the god of war—a fierce and terrible god, indeed. Yet, strange to say, Venus, a handsome goddess, and wife of

the old limping blacksmith, Vulcan, liked his company very well. Vulcan made a net of iron links, in which he caught Mars and Venus, and then called in all the gods to look at them! This seems to have made a great deal of fun.



Hercules.



Neptune.

Hercules was a famous hero, who performed wonderful exploits, by his bodily strength alone.

Neptune was the god of the sea. His father, Saturn, ate him up, when a baby—

but he was afterwards brought to life, and received his empire from his brother Jupiter.

Minerva was the goddess of wisdom. She was said to be born of Jupiter's brain. A famous temple was erected to this goddess

at Athens, by Pericles, about four hundred and fifty years before Christ. The chief circumstances of her history were beautifully represented in sculpture around this temple. The edifice still remains, though in ruins, a splendid monument of the genius of the ancient Greeks.

This is a very brief sketch of some of the deities belonging to the ancient Greek religion. For nearly two thousand years

this prevailed in Greece, and it was afterwards adopted by the Romans, who added many gods to suit themselves. It became the Roman religion, and was inculcated throughout that vast empire. It was not till about three hundred and twenty years after Christ, that the Christian religion was adopted, as the religion of the Roman government.



LONDON.

LONDON, the capital of the British empire, and by far the most splendid city on the globe, is about two thousand years old. It has long been the principal city in England, but its increase has been much greater of late years than formerly.

Notwithstanding the antiquity of its origin, almost everything now existing in London is of recent construction. The Tower, Westminster Abbey, and a few other edifices, are of some antiquity, but by far the larger portion of this vast metropolis is less than a century old. Above we give a view of a portion of London, as it was almost two hundred years ago. Not a single edifice which appears in this picture is now standing; and the hills, which are visible in the distance, are now entirely spread over with a dense mass of buildings.

The increase of London, within the last twenty-five years, is amazing. Hundreds of acres are now covered with buildings, which twenty years since were open fields; multitudes of streets and squares, displaying the utmost magnificence, are now seen, which a dozen years ago were not thought of. London now contains nearly two millions of people; they pay two millions of dollars a week for labor; use forty millions of gallons of water a day; devour two millions of sheep, ten millions of gallons of milk, four millions of herrings, four millions of mackerel, and two millions of lobsters, every year! What will London get to be, if it goes on a century more, increasing as it has done for the last few years?



SAINT ROSALIA.

SAN ROSALIA, the Saint of Palermo, in Sicily, and whose shrine is prefixed to this article, was, according to legend, the daughter of William the Good, who reigned in the year 1159. At the age of fifteen, she retired to Monte Pelegrino, in order to spend the remainder of her life in religious solitude, and a period of nearly five hundred years elapsed without her even being heard of. In 1624, a plague, which threatened to depopulate this capital, raged at Palermo. A hermit, whose name is not given in the legend, dreamt that the bones of the Saint Rosalia were on the top of Mount Pelegrino, and that if they were carried in procession round the walls of the city, the plague would cease.

After prayers and supplications, he induced a number of individuals to go in procession to the top of the mountain, where the remains of Rosalia were found, it is said, in a cave. Some pretend that the body was fresh, and looked as if she had died at the age of fifteen; while others assert that there were only the bones. Then they were carried round the city walls, and the plague gradually ceased. This was accounted a miracle; and churches were built to her honor. A chapel was erected on the top of

the mountain where she was found, and priests appointed to perform divine service.

To facilitate the approach to those sacred relics, the Palermitans, after immense labor, constructed a road up the face of the mountain, which is nearly perpendicular; and though dangerous, that by no means operates as a check to the devotion of hundreds who seek the protection and patronage of the saint.

The pretended bones of this saint are now annually carried about the city in a large silver box, and, according to popular belief, she has several times since her discovery saved the Sicilians from the plague. Long before the celebration of the festival, she becomes the subject of general conversation and excites the greatest interest. Her triumphal car is made to an immense height, is built on the Marino, and, when completed, is drawn through the principal street by a number of richly dressed mules, preceded by dragoons with trumpets. On the lower part of the machine is an orchestra, and above it is a small temple, in the interior of which are figures of different saints, and on the top of all a large statue of San Rosalia. Every side of the machine is decorated with

flowers, and during the ceremony, the street is crowded with people, and the windows, to all of which are balconies, are filled with ladies. At night there is a general illumination.

The amusements at this Palermo rejoicing vary each day; one night the Flora Gardens are illuminated; on another one, the streets; and in the day-time horse-races. The latter, from their peculiarities, are worthy of notice. The horses start from the bottom of the principal street, near the Porto Felice, and run to the Porto Nuovo. They have no riders, but have small bladders fixed on their backs, in which are inserted sharp spikes, serving, by the motion, to urge them on. The prizes run for are generally small, consisting of from ten to fifteen ounces in dollars fastened to a board,

and the horse that wins is led in procession with the prize before him.

The illumination of the Madre Chiesa, which is the cathedral church of Palermo, excites the admiration of all travellers. It is here where the box, containing the bones of St. Rosalia, is deposited. The last ceremony is a grand procession, in which the silver box is carried by the principal citizens, who consider it a great honor. Immense crowds endeavor to get near to touch it, for they consider that this act is a remedy for all evils.

The approach of this festival produces general joy and happiness; and the people are so attached to the memory of the saint, that it is supposed that any attempt to suppress her commemoration would be attended with the most serious consequences.



CONSTANTINOPLE.

THIS famous city, called *Stamboul* by the Turks, was called *Byzantium*, in very ancient times. Constantine, one of the Roman emperors, restored it, and rendered it very splendid, in the fourth century of the Christian era. He also made it the capital of his empire, since which time it has been a great and splendid city.

The history of this place would fill a volume, for here many interesting events have happened. It was taken by the Turks in the year 1453, and since that time has been the capital of the Ottoman or Turkish empire.

It is situated on a number of small hills, and is partly encircled by the sea, a beau-

tiful harbor spreading out before it called the *Golden Horn*. At a distance this city seems almost like a scene of fairy-land, so beautiful is the effect of its splendid minarets, cupolas, bazaars, palaces, mosques, and other public edifices, seen in the midst of the dark green cypress-trees. But when you enter the city, you will be disappointed to find that you have seen all the best of it, and that its streets are narrow, dark, dirty, crooked, ill-paved, and often so steep as to make it difficult to pass along.

The population of Constantinople is about six hundred thousand; it is, therefore, nearly as large as New York and Boston put together. It has a great deal of commerce, and the harbor is crowded with shipping. The inhabitants are Turks, but people may be seen here from all countries. Perhaps there is no place in the world where so great a variety of costumes may be seen as in the streets of Constantinople.



WONDERS WITHIN A PLANT.

THE universe is full of wonders; and the more we know, the greater is our admiration of the great Author of all things. If the telescope, which has enabled us to look into the heavens beyond the reach of the naked eye, has revealed the most amazing sources of beauty and sublimity, the microscope, which enables us to look into regions too minute for inspection by unaided vision, has also unfolded its world of wonders. A celebrated writer has furnished us the result of his examination of a plant, in the following words,—and we need not add that any of our readers may enjoy similar pleasure, by similar means.

“The fragrance of a carnation, led me to enjoy it frequently and near. While inhaling the powerful sweets, I heard an extremely soft but agreeable murmuring sound. It was easy to know that some animal, within the covert, must be the musician, and that the little noise must come from some little body suited to produce it. I am furnished with apparatus of a thousand kinds for close observation. I instantly distended the lower part of the flower, and placing it in a full light, could discover troops of little insects, frisking and capering with wild jollity among the narrow pedestals that supported its leaves, and the

little threads that occupied its centre. I was not cruel enough to pull out any one of them, but adapting a microscope, to take in at one view the whole base of the flower, I gave myself an opportunity of contemplating what they were about, and this for many days together, without giving them the least disturbance.

"Under the microscope, the base of the flower extended itself to a large plain; the slender stems of the leaves became trunks of so many stately cedars; the threads in the middle seemed columns of massy structure, supporting at the top their several ornaments; and the narrow places between were enlarged into walks, parterres, and terraces. On the polished bottom of these, brighter than the Parian marble, walked in pairs, alone, or in large companies, the winged inhabitants; these, from little dusky flies, for such only the naked eye would have shown them, were raised to glorious, glittering animals, stained with living purple and with a glossy gold, that would have made all the labors of the loom contemptible in comparison.

"I could, at leisure, as they walked together, admire their elegant limbs, their velvet shoulders, and their silken wings; their backs vying with the empyrean in its hue; and their eyes, each formed of a thousand others, outglittering the little planes on a brilliant. I could observe them here singling out their favorite females, courting them with the music of their buzzing wings, with little songs formed for their little organs, leading them from walk to walk among the perfumed shades, and pointing out to their taste the drop of liquid nectar, just bursting from some vein within the living trunk. Here were the perfumed groves, the more than myrtle shades of the poet's fancy realized; here the happy lovers spent their days in joyful dalliance; in the triumph of their little hearts, skipped after one another, from stem to stem, among the painted trees; or winged their short flight to the shadow of some broader leaf, to revel in the heights of all felicity.

"Nature—the God of nature has proportioned the period of existence of every creature to the means of its support. Duration, perhaps, is as much a comparative quality as magnitude; and these atoms of being, as they appear to us, may have organs that lengthen minutes, to their perception, into years. In a flower, destined to remain but a few days, length of life, according to our ideas, could not be given to its inhabitants;

but it may be, according to theirs. I saw, in the course of observation of this new world, several succeeding generations of the creatures it was peopled with; they passed under my eye, through the several successive states of the egg and the reptile form in a few hours. After these, they burst forth, at an instant, into full growth and perfection, in their wing-form. In this they enjoyed their span of being, as much as we do years; feasted, sported, revelled in delights; fed on the living fragrance that poured itself out at a thousand openings at once before them; enjoyed their loves; laid the foundation for their succeeding progeny, and, after a life thus happily filled up, sunk in an easy dissolution. With what joy in their pleasures did I attend the first and the succeeding broods through the full period of their joyful lives! With what enthusiastic transport did I address to each of these yet happy creatures, Anacreon's gratulations to the cicada:—

"Blissful insect! what can be
In happiness compared to thee?
Fed with nourishment divine,
The dewy morning's sweetest wine,
Nature waits upon thee still,
And thy fragrant cup doth fill;
All the fields that thou dost see,
All the plants belong to thee;
All that summer-hours produce,
Fertile made with ripening juice.
Man for thee does sow and plough,
Farmer he, and landlord thou.
Thee the hinds with gladness hear,
Prophet of the ripened year;
To thee alone, of all the earth,
Life is no longer than thy mirth.
Happy creature! happy, thou
Dost neither age nor winter know;
But when thou'st drank, and danced, and sung
Thy fill, the flowery leaves among,
Sated with the glorious feast,
Thou retirest to endless rest."

"While the pure, contemplative mind thus almost envies what the rude observer would treat unfeelingly, it naturally shrinks into itself, on the thought that there may be, in the immense chain of beings, many, though as invisible to us as we to the inhabitants of this little flower, whose organs are not made for comprehending objects larger than a mite, or more distant than a straw's breadth, to whom we may appear as much below regard as these to us.

"With what derision should we treat those little reasoners, could we hear them arguing for the unlimited duration of the carnation, destined for the extent of their knowledge, as well as their action. And yet, among ourselves, there are reasoners, who argue, on no better foundation, that the earth which we inhabit is eternal!"



BOLIVAR.

THE Spanish colonies of South America remained for three centuries in quiet submission to the mother country, if we except the desperate attempt of the Peruvian Indians, under Tupac Amaru, to throw off the yoke of their oppressors. Never were despotism, avarice and slavish obsequiousness to power, more thoroughly displayed than in Spanish America, under the government of the viceroys and captains-general, who, with all the principal officers of the viceroyal court, were sent to America from Madrid, and who, without being under any efficient responsibility, administered their authority with every species of tyranny and venality. Justice was bought and sold, and the most important legal decisions were made in favor of the highest bidder. The mercantile policy of the parent country was equally despotic and rapacious. The establishment of manufactures was not permitted, while cargoes of Spanish commodities, the refuse of the shops, were forced, in barter for silver and gold, upon a half civilized

people, who neither wanted nor could possibly use them. Foreign commerce was interdicted on pain of death; all social improvement was suppressed; and to prevent the inhabitants from knowing the extent of their degradation, all intercourse whatever was strictly forbidden with any country or people, besides Spain and Spaniards, and allowed even with them only under many restrictions. Superstition and ignorance were upheld as the surest support of the colonial system; so that, previous to 1810, the whole continent, from Lima to Monte Video, contained but one wretched printing press, and that in the hands of the monks, who consigned to the dungeons of the Inquisition every man who possessed a prohibited book.

The example of the revolt of the British North American colonies had a slow effect in propagating revolutionary ideas in the south; and the usurpation of the crown of Spain by Napoleon precipitated those movements which resulted, after a bloody strug-

gle, in wresting from the dominion of Spain the whole of her continental possessions in America. In this momentous contest, Simon Bolivar bore the most conspicuous part, and his life comprises the substance of the history of the country in which his military exploits were performed during its most eventful period.

This celebrated man was born in the city of Caraccas, in July, 1783. He belonged to a family of distinction, and was one of the few natives of the Spanish colonies who were permitted to visit Europe. After finishing his studies at Madrid, he went to France, and during his stay at Paris rendered himself an acceptable guest in its social circles, by the amenity of his manners and his other personal recommendations. In the midst, however, of all the seductions of that gay capital, his sanguine temper and ardent imagination anticipated the task which the future fortunes of his country might impose upon him, and even in his twenty-third year he is said to have contemplated the establishment of her independence. While at Paris his favorite occupation was the study of those branches of science which contribute to the formation of the character of a warrior and statesman. Humboldt and Bonpland were his intimate friends, and accompanied him in his excursions in France; nor did he think his travels finished till he had visited England, Italy, and a part of Germany. On his return to Madrid, he was married, and shortly afterwards returned to America, where he arrived in 1810, at the very moment when his countrymen were about to unfurl the standard of independence. On his passage homeward, he visited the United States, where he gathered some political knowledge which subsequent events rendered highly useful to him.

The revolution began in Venezuela on Good Friday, April 19th, 1810, when, by a popular movement, the captain-general of Caraccas was arrested and deposed, and a congress convened to organize a new government. The talents and acquirements of Bolivar pointed him out as the best qualified person to be placed at the helm; but he disapproved of the system adopted by the congress, and refused a diplomatic mission to England. He even declined any connection with the government, though he continued a stanch friend to the cause of independence. But at length he consented to proceed to England, where he solicited the British cabinet in vain to espouse the cause of the revolution. Finding them re-

solved to maintain a strict neutrality, he returned to Caraccas after a short stay. In the mean time, the declaration of independence was boldly maintained by military force. Miranda was appointed commander-in-chief. Bolivar took the post of colonel in the army, and governor of Puerto Cabello, the strongest place in Venezuela.

Success attended the arms of the patriots till 1812, when a remarkable event caused them the most serious reverses. In March of that year a violent earthquake devastated the whole province, and among other places totally destroyed the city of Caraccas, with all its magazines and munitions of war. This dreadful calamity, in which twenty thousand persons perished, happened, by a most remarkable coincidence, on the anniversary of the very day in which the revolution had broken out, two years before. The priesthood, who, as a body, were devoted to the royal interest, eagerly seized upon this circumstance. In their hands, the earthquake became the token of the Divine wrath against the revolutionary party. The superstitious multitude was easily deluded and terrified with such representations and denunciations. Priests, monks, and friars were stationed in the streets, vociferating in the midst of credulous throngs of people trembling with fear, while the royalist commanders improved the occasion by overrunning one district after another. Bolivar was compelled to evacuate Puerto Cabello. Miranda's conduct having become suspicious, he was arrested by the patriot leaders and delivered up to the Spanish commander, who sent him to Spain, where he died in a dungeon. Bolivar is supposed to have had a share in this transaction, in consequence of which he has been severely censured. There were some circumstances, however, which appeared to justify a suspicion that Miranda was engaged in a hostile plot with the British cabinet.

Bolivar was now entrusted with the command of an army of six thousand men, which he led across the mountains to the further extremity of New Granada. In the hostilities of this period, deeds of the most revolting ferocity were perpetrated by the royalist troops, and the whole country was reduced to a frightful state of misery. On the most trivial pretexes, old men, women and children, were arrested and massacred as rebels. Friars and military butchers reigned triumphant. One of the Spanish officers, named Suasola, cut off the ears of a great number of patriots, and had them stuck in the caps of his soldiers for cockades.

Bolívar, who had hitherto conducted the war with great forbearance, was inflamed with indignation at these cruelties; he swore to avenge his countrymen, and declared that every royalist who fell into his hands should be consigned to the vengeance of his soldiery. But this spirit of inexorable justice and retaliation ill accorded with Bolívar's character, and it was exercised only on one occasion, when eight hundred Spaniards were shot. Afterwards it was formally announced by Bolívar, that "no Spaniard shall be put to death except in battle. The war of death shall cease."

The royalists, who, by the practice of the most bloody and ferocious atrocities, had gained possession of nearly the whole country, now began to give way before the arms of Bolívar. Passing from one victory to another, he drove the enemy from every post, and on the 4th of August, 1814, made his triumphant entry into the renovated city of Caraccas. The enthusiasm and joy of the people exceeded all bounds, and this was certainly the most brilliant day in his whole career. Greeted by the acclamations of thousands of the inhabitants, artillery, bells and music, the Liberator was drawn into the city in a triumphal car by twelve beautiful young ladies, of the first families of the capital, dressed in white, and adorned with the patriot colors, while others crowned him with laurel, and strewed his way with flowers. All the prisons were thrown open, and hundreds who had been suffering for political opinions came forth, pale and emaciated, to thank him for their liberation. The royalists throughout the province capitulated, and the triumph of the patriots was complete.

Bolívar was now constituted dictator, and entrusted with unlimited power. This measure was prompted by the sentiments of enthusiasm and gratitude during the first moments of exultation in the people; but, as is the case in all infant republics, they soon began to give manifestations of a jealousy for that liberty which had cost them such sacrifices. The power of the dictator, who delegated his authority to his inferior officers, by whom it was frequently abused, redoubled their apprehensions. Suspicions arose, that the primary object of Bolívar was his own aggrandizement. In consequence of this, on the 2d of January, 1814, he made a formal tender of his resignation. This lulled the suspicions of the people, and the royalists having begun to rally and arm their negro slaves, he was solicited to retain the dictatorship. The war was now re-

newed, and many battles were fought. On the 14th of June, 1814, Bolívar was defeated at La Puerta, with the loss of fifteen hundred men; and again, on the 17th of August, near his own estate of San Mateo, where the negro leader Boves, with a squadron of cavalry named the "infernal division," with black crape on their lances, rushing with hideous shouts from an ambush, scattered his remaining forces, and would have made him prisoner but for the fleetness of his horse. His cousin, Ribas, was taken and shot, and his head set upon the wall of Caraccas. Bolívar's beautiful family mansion was burnt to the ground, and he was compelled, in September, to leave the royalists again in complete possession of all Venezuela, while thousands of the patriot army deserted to their ranks.

In spite of these reverses, we find him, in December of the same year, at the head of two thousand men, marching upon the city of Bogota, which he stormed and captured. But other circumstances having caused him to despair of any permanent success against the Spaniards at that time, he left the country in May, 1815, and retired to Jamaica. The war in Europe being brought to a close, the Spanish government were enabled to send an army of twelve thousand men, under General Morillo, to Venezuela and New Granada. This commander overran both provinces, and executed two thousand of the inhabitants. While Bolívar resided at Kingston, in Jamaica, he employed himself in writing a defence of his conduct in the civil war of New Granada, and issued several spirited exhortations to the patriots, for which his assassination was attempted by the royalist party. A Spaniard, stimulated by a bribe of fifty thousand dollars and a promise of perfect absolution by the church, ventured upon this undertaking. He obtained admission into Bolívar's apartment, and stabbed to the heart his secretary, who, by chance, was lying in the general's hammock.

From Jamaica, Bolívar proceeded to Hayti, where he raised a force of blacks and patriot emigrants, with which he landed in Cumana, in July, 1816. But, at Ocumare, he was surrounded by the royalists, defeated with great slaughter, and again expelled from the country. A few months afterwards, he landed once more upon the continent, and, after a battle of three days, completely routed the army of Morillo. This success reinstated him in his office of captain-general and supreme head, and he followed up this advantage by other victo-

ries over the royalists. On the 15th of February, 1819, the Congress of the Venezuelan republic was installed at Angostura, when Bolivar submitted the plan of a republican constitution, and formally laid down his authority. A strong representation of the exigencies of the times was again pressed upon him and became his inducement to resume it. In the following summer he undertook an expedition across the Cordilleras. Fatigue and privations of every kind were endured with exemplary fortitude in the advance of the army through this wild, precipitous and barren region, where they lost their artillery and most of their equipments. On the heights of Tunja, they found a Spanish army of three thousand five hundred men whom they instantly attacked and defeated. This, and a subsequent victory at Boyaca, compelled the Spanish commander-in-chief, Barreiro, to surrender the remnant of his army. Samano, the Spanish viceroy, fled from Bogota, leaving in the treasury a million of dollars behind him; and the deliverance of New Granada was complete.

The immediate consequence of this success was the union of the two provinces of Venezuela and New Granada, under the title of the Republic of Colombia, and Bolivar was appointed president, in 1819. It would much exceed our limits to relate all the military events which followed till the final expulsion of the Spanish armies from the country. Peru had now revolted, and solicited the aid of the Colombians. Bolivar marched an army into that country in 1822, drove the royalists from Lima, and was appointed dictator by the Peruvian congress. On the 6th of August, 1824, he gained the important victory of Junin, and the Peruvian congress shortly after tendered him a present of a million of dollars, which he refused. The royalists being again defeated at Ayacucho, by General Sucre, on the 9th of December, 1824, the war of Spanish American independence was finally closed, after one hundred thousand lives had been sacrificed. Bolivar resigned the dictatorship of Peru in the following February, and in his tour through the country, witnessed one uninterrupted scene of triumph and extravagant exultation, — of dinners, balls, bull-fights, illuminations, triumphal arches and processions. A sumptuous banquet was given on the summit of the famous mountain of Potosi, and the Liberator, in the enthusiasm excited by the excessive adulation which he received, exclaimed on that occasion, "The value of all the riches that

are buried in the Andes beneath my feet is nothing compared to the glory of having borne the standard of independence from the sultry banks of the Orinoco, to fix it on the frozen peak of this mountain, whose wealth has excited the envy and astonishment of the world."

A new republic, formed out of the conquered provinces, was now constituted, and named, from the Liberator, *Bolivia*. From this republic he received a gift of a million of dollars, on condition that the money should be appropriated to the liberation of negro slaves in that territory. At the request of the congress, he framed a scheme of government, known as the "Bolivian code." This was adopted both in Bolivia and by the Congress of Lima, where Bolivar was made president. On the 22d of June, 1826, a scheme projected by him for a grand congress of the Spanish American republics, was carried into effect, and this meeting, consisting of deputies from Colombia, Mexico, Guatemala, Peru and Bolivia, was convened at Panama. The main object of this congress was to establish an annual convention of state representatives, to discuss diplomatic affairs, decide international disputes, promote liberal principles, and ensure a union of strength in repelling any foreign attack. This was a noble idea, but too vast an undertaking for the means of performance which actually existed within the control of the Liberator, and it led to no great practical results.

On the return of Bolivar to Colombia, he found two thirds of the republic in a state of insurrection. Great dissatisfaction existed in Venezuela with the central government, and the inhabitants, headed by Paez, a mulatto general, rose and declared themselves in favor of a federal system. Bolivar, having reached Bogota, the capital, assumed extraordinary powers, being authorized to take that step by the constitution, in its provisions for cases of rebellion. He then proceeded to Venezuela; but, instead of punishing the insurgents, he announced a general amnesty, and confirmed Paez in the command which he had assumed. This led to strong suspicions that the insurrection had been instigated by Bolivar, in order to afford a pretext for assuming the dictatorship, and that he and Paez had acted with a collusive understanding. The truth, on this subject, has never yet been clearly revealed. The presence of Bolivar quieted the commotion, as, in spite of the suspicions which rested upon him, his popularity was still very great. He addressed a letter to

the senate of Colombia, disclaiming all ambitious designs, and offering his resignation. This proposal caused violent debates in the congress, and many members voted to accept it; but a majority were in favor of continuing him in office.

At a congress held at Ocana, in March, 1828, Bolivar assumed more of an anti-republican tone, and recommended strengthening the executive power. Many of his adherents, in which the soldiery were included, seconded his views, and declared that the people were not prepared to appreciate the excellence of institutions purely republican; a fact of which there can be little doubt. They carried this doctrine, however, to an unwarrantable extreme, by insisting that the president should be intrusted with absolute discretionary power. This proposition was indignantly rejected by a majority of the congress, and the partisans of Bolivar vacated their seats; in consequence of which, that body was left without a quorum, and dissolved. The city of Bogota then took the matter into its own hands, and conferred upon Bolivar the title of Supreme Chief of Colombia, with absolute power to regulate all the affairs of government. His immediate concurrence in this illegal and revolutionary measure has been deemed a sufficient proof that it was brought about by his instigation. On the 20th of June, 1829, he entered that city in magnificent state, and assumed his authority. These proceedings could not but lead to violent measures. An attempt was soon made to assassinate the dictator. Several persons broke into his chamber at midnight, and shot two officers of the staff, who were with him; Bolivar himself only escaped by leaping out of the window and lying concealed under a bridge. Santander, the vice-president, and several officers of the army, were tried and convicted of being implicated in this conspiracy. The former was sentenced to death, but Bolivar was satisfied with banishing him from Colombia.

The whole country became rent with factions, commotions and rebellion. The popularity of the Liberator was gone, and his authority was disclaimed in almost every quarter. The events which ensued do not require to be specified here, as they are nothing more than a repetition of what had been acted over many times before. At length Bolivar, finding his influence at an end, and his health and spirits broken, determined to withdraw from public life, take leave of the country, and retire to Europe. At a general convention at Bogota, in Jan-

uary, 1830, he resigned his authority for the last time, and rejected many entreaties to resume it. He withdrew to the neighborhood of Carthagena, where he spent nearly two years in retirement, when, finding his end approaching, he issued his farewell address to the people of Colombia, in the following words:—

“Colombians,—I have unceasingly and disinterestedly exerted my energies for your welfare. I have abandoned my fortune and my personal tranquillity in your cause. I am the victim of my persecutors, who have now conducted me to my grave: but I pardon them. Colombians, I leave you. My last prayers are offered up for the tranquillity of my country; and if my death will contribute to this desirable end, by extinguishing your factions, I shall descend with feelings of contentment into the tomb that is soon to receive me.” A week afterwards, he breathed his last, at San Pedro, near Carthagena, on the 17th of December, 1831, at the age of forty-eight.

His death appears to have afflicted his countrymen with the deepest sorrow and remorse. In an instant they forgot the jealousies and suspicions which had filled their breasts, with regard to their great chief, and, by a sudden revulsion of feeling, they indulged in the most bitter self-reproach at the reflection, that the man who had devoted his fortune and his life to the liberation and welfare of his country, had sunk under their ungenerous reproaches, and died of a broken heart, the victim of national ingratitude. Almost every town in Colombia paid honors to his memory by orations, funeral processions, and other demonstrations of grief and respect.

The fortunes of this eminent man were most singular. During one period he was regarded as one of the greatest characters of modern times. At the present moment he is almost forgotten; and another generation may witness a revival of his fame. In the early part of his career he was believed to be a disinterested patriot; at the close he had totally lost the confidence of his countrymen, and he died tainted with the suspicion of intriguing with the French government to subjugate the country by European arms and establish a monarchy. There are some acts of his life which have an equivocal character; but, judging of his whole conduct from such evidence as is within our reach, we are compelled to pronounce his acquittal of the charge of entertaining designs hostile to the liberties of his country. Bolivar is not to be judged by the standard

which we apply to the character and merits of Washington. The cool-tempered, orderly, intelligent, and well educated North Americans, who achieved their independence with a moderation, sobriety and self-restraint, which drew forth the applause and admiration of the world, were a very different race from the heterogeneous population of Colombia, ignorant, insubordinate, superstitious, fanatical, ferocious, little advanced in civilization, and subject to all the sudden impulses of a rash and fiery southern temper. It was impossible to govern such men, amid the turbulence of jealous factions, by the weak instrument of a written constitution.

The proofs of Bolivar's disinterestedness are very strong. He sacrificed a large fortune in the cause of his country; and had many opportunities of acquiring enormous wealth, all of which he neglected. As a military commander, he is entitled to high praise. Though often defeated, his perseverance and fortitude, in rising superior to every obstacle, are everywhere conspicuous. The difficulties of marshalling, disciplining and leading an army to battle during the revolution of Colombia, are hardly to be conceived. Bolivar's troops often consisted chiefly of desperate adventurers, eager only

for pay and plunder; ragged Creoles, Indians, naked negroes, and cavalry of half savage *Llaneros* mounted on wild horses. Whole regiments often deserted from one side to the other, and back again, according to the chance of success.

The fatigues, cares and anxieties to which he was constantly exposed during a most eventful career of nearly twenty years, were strongly marked in his countenance, and at forty-five he had the appearance of a man of sixty. He was capable of enduring the most severe labor; was a remarkably bold horseman, and was fond of dancing in his spurs. He was abstemious in personal matters, but hospitable and highly munificent in giving entertainments. His manners were easy and dignified, and he was gifted with an extraordinary faculty of prompt repartee in conversation. In one instance, he was known to give seventeen unprepared answers in succession, each of which, if prepared by deliberate study, would have been admired for its happy adaptation to the subject and the occasion. In proposing a toast, in returning thanks, or in speaking impromptu on any casual subject, he never was surpassed.



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

GIBRALTAR is a celebrated fortified rock, at the foot of which is a town of sixteen thousand inhabitants. The space occupied by the rock and town is about seven miles in circuit. It is almost entirely surrounded by the Mediterranean Sea, but it is connected with the continent by a low sandy isthmus.

As seen from a ship, nothing can be more

desolate than the appearance of Gibraltar; but when you get upon it, you will find fig trees, orange trees, acacias, and a profusion of odoriferous plants. You will also find woodcocks, partridges, teal, and rabbits in abundance. If you wander up the rocks, you will also find apes of considerable size frisking about, and seeming quite at home.

This is the only spot in Europe where any animal of the monkey kind is found to be a native. It is fancied that these creatures pass through caverns under the sea to Africa, which is some twenty or thirty miles across at the narrowest part. It is unnecessary to say that this is impossible.

The rock of Gibraltar is perforated by a great number of natural caverns. St. Michael's, on the south-west side, is the most famous. You enter this about one thousand feet above the level of the sea. At a little distance, you come to a spacious hall, supported by stalactite pillars. Beneath this is a series of beautiful grottoes, though difficult of access. It is said, that in some of these grottoes you can hear the sea roaring beneath, through crevices in the rock!

The rock and town of Gibraltar belong to the English. The former is strongly fortified, and is considered impregnable. It came into the hands of the English in 1704, since which they have held it, though it has often been attacked and besieged. The most memorable siege commenced in 1779, and

it did not cease till February, 1783. The grand attack took place in September, 1782. Beside stupendous batteries, mounting two hundred guns, there was an army of forty thousand men, led by the celebrated Duc de Crillon, in the presence of two princes of the blood. In the bay lay the combined fleets of France and Spain. The assault was dreadful. Four hundred pieces of artillery, on both sides, were playing at once. The roar was perpetual, and the rock shook as if by an earthquake. Yet the brave garrison held out, and the attack was unavailing.

The east and north sides of the rock of Gibraltar are by their nature inaccessible. Toward the south, also, it is very rocky and precipitous. To the west, it slopes to the town; and here the artificial batteries are erected. These are most formidable. To accommodate the operations of the garrison, there are galleries, leading from one point to another, of sufficient width for cannon carriages, and cut for nearly three miles through the very heart of the rock.



MINERAL COAL.

THIS article is now one of the most important instruments of human comfort, and one of the chief sources of human power. It is chiefly by this that the immense manufactories of Great Britain are carried on. By this the pot is boiled, the steak fried, the steamboat impelled, the locomotive driven on its way.

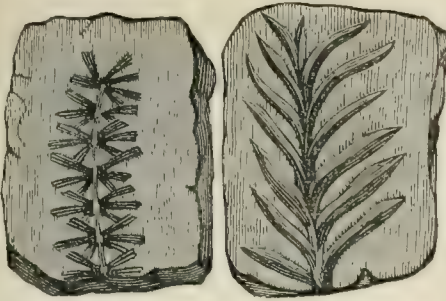
In this country, mineral coal is becoming of vast importance. Several million of tons are annually taken from the mines of Pennsylvania alone. The steamboats on several lines are driven by this coal; and many

a New England family is dependent upon it for breakfast, dinner, and supper.

It may be readily believed that mineral coal, so important as it appears to be, should have been the theme of earnest and careful investigation among scientific men. They have made such observations, that they can pretty easily tell where beds of coal lie, in what direction they run, and how productive they may be.

Besides investigating these points, many geologists have set themselves to work to learn how such vast masses of coal have

been made. The result of these inquiries is curious — indeed, wonderful. It seems that mineral coal, which is so hard, black, and stone-like, is all made of vegetable matter — trees, leaves, and stalks of plants, that have been buried in the earth for ages, and have acquired their present form and condition by pressure and heat.



Our readers may be curious to know how these facts are ascertained. We need only say, that, by looking carefully with glasses

at various species of coal, the forms of leaves, stalks, and fibres, and the very texture of wood, may be easily detected! Indeed, the very kinds of plants of which coal is made have in many instances been ascertained. Of these, we have given sketches above.

But the most wonderful part of the story is not yet told. It appears that, in some remote age of the world, the climates were different from what they now are, and it seems that, where now hardly a plant of any kind will live, in those ancient times huge pines and ferns raised their towering tops, and that the teeming soil covered the whole face of nature with a redundant vegetation. These became, by some process, entombed in the earth; and having accumulated for centuries, and having undergone a mechanical and chemical change, have been converted into huge mineral masses. Thus it is that, in the cold climate of England, Scotland, and even Nova Scotia, we find vast beds of coal made of trees and plants that thrive now only in the warm climates of the earth.



BRUSSELS.

BRUSSELS, the capital of Belgium, is one of the handsomest cities in Europe. It is situated on the little river Senne, fifty miles from the sea, and one hundred and fifty-five miles north-east of Paris. Its population, including the suburbs, is about 135,000. Here the king, Leopold, holds his court; here is his palace, and here is the *Palais du Congrès*, where the legislative body meets.

The full description of this city would occupy many pages. We have room only for a few of its principal characteristics. It is built on a slope of a hill, and, when viewed from the west, has a fine appearance. It is surrounded by a wall, but the old fortifications, which were once very strong, are thrown down, and their site is formed into beautiful promenades or *boulevards*. These

encircle two thirds of the city, and are planted with rows of linden-trees. As you walk along this charming place, you see the finest gardens on either side, presenting every variety of fruit and flower, together with every kind of embellishment in ornamental gardening. From the boulevards you have also views of the surrounding country, which is in the highest degree rich, varied, and beautiful.

Among the curiosities of this interesting city are the fountains. One of these, called the *Manikin*, is an exquisite bronze figure of a boy about two feet in height. We shall not tell you what he is about, for our readers will know when they see him. This image is very old, and the ancient inhabitants of the city look upon it with great reverence, believing it to possess a kind of charm, which protects the city. Another fountain, that of the *Fleuves*, has two groups, one of river gods, in marble, and one of dolphins, in bronze, which appear to be bathing or sporting in the water.

There are a great many curious old Gothic buildings in Brussels, ornamented in the most florid style. The Hotel de Ville is a lofty edifice of this description, and has a very strange appearance, especially to an American.

The streets and squares of Brussels are among the finest in the world. The park is an open oblong space, containing fourteen acres. It is covered with smooth, verdant turf, and is laid out in straight and winding walks, sheltered by lofty beech and chestnut-trees, and plantations of acacias. It is embellished with numerous groups of marble statuary from heathen mythology. It is surrounded with magnificent edifices, and is every day enlivened with troops of people, among which are always a considerable number of scampering, hoyden children, playing over the grounds.

Brussels abounds in celebrated buildings, and contains several grand and venerable cathedrals, erected in the middle ages. It is also noted for its schools. Many English people, of moderate fortune, are attracted hither by the beauty of the city, and the great advantages it affords for the education of children. Among the liberal institutions the Botanic Garden deserves particular notice. Its range of hot-houses, the principal of which is represented in the engraving, is four hundred feet in length, and heated by steam. In front of these hot-houses is a splendid lawn, furnished with seats, from which the city is seen to great advantage. The gardens are open to students at all times, and to the public three days in the week.

We must not omit to mention, that nine miles from Brussels is the village of Waterloo, the battle-ground of the most bloody conflicts in modern times. Here are several monuments erected in memory of those who fell. But for these, a stranger would not imagine, from its present appearance, that it could ever have been the theatre of such a scene. It is now covered with fields of grass and grain, and seems smiling with peace and plenty. Yet here Bonaparte was finally overthrown; and here the cold, stern, heartless Wellington uttered that memorable saying, while looking upon the heaps of slain, — "There is nothing so dreadful as a great defeat, except a great victory."



THE NESTS OF BIRDS.

How curious is the structure of the nest of the goldfinch or chaffinch! The inside of it is lined with cotton and fine silken threads; and the outside cannot be sufficiently admired, though it is composed only of various species of fine moss. The color of these mosses, resembling that of the bark of the tree on which the nest is built, proves that the bird intended it should not be easily discovered. In some nests, hair, wool, and rushes, are dexterously interwoven. In some, all the parts are firmly fastened by a thread, which the bird makes of hemp, wool, hair, or more commonly of spiders' webs. —

Other birds, as, for instance, the black-

bird and the lapwing, after they have constructed their nest, plaster the inside with mortar, which cements and binds the whole together; they then stick upon it, while quite wet, some wool or moss, to give it the necessary degree of warmth.

The nests of swallows are of a very different construction from those of other birds. They require neither wood, nor hay, nor cords; they make a kind of mortar, with which they form a neat, secure, and comfortable habitation for themselves and their family. To moisten the dust of which they build their nest, they dip their breasts in water, and shake the drops from their wet feathers upon it. But the nests most worthy of admiration are those of certain Indian birds, which suspend them with great art from the branches of trees, to secure them from the depredations of various animals and insects. In general, every species of birds has a peculiar mode of building; but it may be remarked of all alike, that they always construct their nests in the way that is best adapted to their security, and to the preservation and welfare of their species.

Such is the wonderful instinct of birds with respect to the structure of their nests.

What skill and sagacity, what industry and patience, do they display! And is it not apparent that all their labors tend towards certain ends? They construct their nests hollow, and nearly round, that they may retain the heat so much the better. They line them with the most delicate substances, that the young may lie soft and warm. What is it that teaches the bird to place her nest in a situation sheltered from the rain, and secure against the attacks of other animals? How did she learn that she should lay eggs—that eggs would require a nest to prevent them from falling to the ground, and to keep them warm? Whence does she know that the heat would not be maintained around the eggs if the nest were too large, and that, on the other hand, the young would not have sufficient room if it were smaller? By what rules does she determine the due proportions between the nest and the young which are not yet in existence? Who has taught her to calculate the time with such accuracy that she never commits a mistake, in producing her eggs before the nest is ready to receive them? Admire, in all these things, the power, the wisdom, and the goodness of the Creator.



ADVENTURE WITH A LION.

SOME years ago, it was said that a lion of the largest size had been seen near the British settlement on Cape Coast, Africa. At length, he was observed prowling under the walls of the fort; and he here carried off two or three negro children. The poor

natives were in great terror; and this was heightened by the expectation of soon seeing more of these fearful animals in their vicinity—for they seldom come alone.

The officers of the regiment, at the fort, determined to make a hunting expedition,

for the purpose of capturing the lion. In order to ascertain whether there was really a lion in the neighborhood, or not, they had a hole dug in the earth, and covered it over with bushes. Over this, on a stick, were hung a sheep's head and pluck. The officer on guard was directed to keep his eye on this during the night.

When night came, a thunder-storm arose, and the scene was wrapped in intense darkness. At the same time, the terrific roar of the lion was heard by the watch. At length, by the blaze of the lightning, the officer saw two lions, crouching along toward the bait. At last, one of them, having approached within a few yards of it, made a tremendous bound, and, seizing the sheep's head, leaped entirely across the trap in his jump. The other lion, which was a female, immediately joined him. The two devoured the meat in a moment. The officer fired his rifle twice, but without effect.

Not satisfied with all this, the two lions made their way to a negro-hut, and breaking down a mud-wall, which enclosed a pair of asses, they stuck their huge claws into them and dragged them off for their supper.

The next day, the officers, being well equipped, attended by half a dozen soldiers, as many negroes, and a supply of dogs, set forth in quest of the marauders. After proceeding along at an easy pace, they distinctly traced the footsteps of the lions over the sands, and also a long ridge, or path, which had evidently been made by dragging the captive prey in the line of these marks. They therefore proceeded, till they were lost in the thick underwood and tall sedge grass of the covert, to which they had repaired. They could, however, still trace the passage of the beasts through the bushes, and at no great distance from the entrance of the jungle, found the bones of two animals which they had carried off. But here they were at fault. The mangled and mutilated remains told that here the lions had made their supper, but gave no indication of their sleeping apartments; however, they conjectured that they could not be far off. It was lucky that they brought with them a small Scotch terrier, who seemed fully to enter into the sport, and by his keen scent gave indication of the track the lions had taken. This the adventurers followed, with guns on the full cock, and an anxious expectation of seeing one or both lions dart from the coppice.

This, however, was not the case; and, after half an hour's progress, the party found themselves before a cave, overgrown with wild plants and shrubs, which seemed

likely to promise an adventure. The little terrier, who up to this time had been so courageous, now absolutely refused to go forward, and instead of barking, put his tail between his legs, and slunk into the rear of the party.

The question now arose, as to who should explore the cave, or, rather, who should peep into it, that the party might know whether the lions were "at home." Capt. Macleod volunteered this service, and with his rifle in his hand, and a pair of pistols, full cocked, in his girdle, crouched towards the opening. The cave was not very deep; and, from there being a slight opening at the top, no sooner had the valiant officer proceeded a few yards, than he obtained a view of both the lions, sleeping, — having, no doubt, stuffed themselves to repletion by the last night's food.

Unwilling to let so good an opportunity of taking aim be lost, he immediately levelled his piece at the nearest of the pair, and shot it through the head. The report, however, roused the other lion, who, with the quickness of lightning, dashed towards the opening, and before the captain could make his retreat, had brought him to the ground with a blow of his gigantic paw, and stood over him in the exulting attitude in which you see him in the picture.

The blacks, poor fellows, being deficient in English courage, immediately ran off as fast as their legs would carry them. One, with inconceivable agility, mounted to the top of one of the highest trees, among the smaller boughs, which a lion is always unable to reach. The others were not heard of, till the party reached the fort. The Scotch fusileers, instead of running away, opened a volley upon the lion. Two or three balls struck him in the head, and one in the side; when, uttering a tremendous roar, he endeavored to dash towards them, but fell, from exhaustion, over the captain, who, being very nimble, and observing the condition of the lion, drew one of his pistols, and shot him through the heart.

Such was the end of the lion-hunt; for, upon the party entering the cave, they found the lioness stretched and lifeless, — the ball first fired by the captain having penetrated her skull. But what was quite unexpected, there lay two fine cubs, not more than a fortnight old, under their mother.

These cubs were sent by the captain to Europe, by the first conveyance. They were brought up like dogs, and taught to perform a variety of tricks. At last, a Frenchman purchased them, and gave them

further training, so that they became perfectly obedient to him. He taught them to defend him against his pretended enemies, on the stage. Upon one, Syphax, he was seen as sleeping; and with the other, Juba, he engaged in a mock combat, defending himself with a wooden spear; while the lion appeared to resist his efforts, growling and showing his teeth, until at length he permitted himself to be overcome, and was seen lying at the feet of his master.

In our own days, Monsieur Van Amburgh has exhibited trained lions, performing a number of tricks, clearly proving that even lions can be taught.



ARTESIAN WELLS.

ARTESIAN wells, so called from the idea that they were first constructed at *Artois*, a province of France, are perpendicular borings into the ground, for the purpose of obtaining water.

There are two principal conditions necessary for the formation of a well of this kind; first, the existence of a pervious stratum, or one through which water may pass, or *percolate*, placed between two impervious strata, such as clay or rock. The rain, falling upon the surface of the earth, and meeting with the edge of one of these soft strata, sinks into it, and follows its course to its lowest point. Here it collects, and remains shut up between the impervious strata, without diminishing in quantity, owing to the impossibility of evaporation. Now, as

water always seeks its point of equilibrium, (that is, seeks to be as high at one spot as at another,) it is obvious that it would rise, in a perforation made into the stratum where it has collected, to a position on a level with the ground where it had first begun to sink. If the top of the well is higher than the source of the water, the water will not reach it; if even with it, the water will flow exactly to the top; if it is lower, the water will be projected over the top, in the manner of a fountain.

The diameter of the boring in the Artesian wells is seldom more than six inches — a width which is amply sufficient to afford a supply of six hundred thousand gallons an hour. In some instances, the iron pipe by which the water is brought to the surface is carried to a height nearly on a level with the source of supply. This is the case with the celebrated Artesian well at Grenelle, near Paris. The annexed cut is made to represent this pipe as it rises from the ground, and the scaffolding by which it is supported. At present, the water flows into a circular iron reservoir at the top of the scaffold, and is thence conveyed, by another pipe, to the ground. It is of good quality, and is well adapted to culinary and domestic purposes. There is no fear of the supply proving deficient, as it is derived from the infiltration of a surface of country nearly two hundred miles in diameter. This well is 1800 feet deep, or about a third of a mile, and required, in its completion, eight years of incessant labor. The boring was made by a drill; then the iron tube, which was sunk as fast as the hole was made to receive it.

During the boring of the well, it was observed that, at a depth of 1300 feet, the water was of the temperature of 74° ; at a depth of 1650 feet, the thermometer rose to 79° ; and when the perforation was completed, it stood two degrees higher. The fact, that water increases in temperature — grows warmer — as we descend into the earth, is a strong argument in favor of the interior heat of the earth. In view of this fact, and the observations made upon it, the inhabitants of Grenelle afterwards regretted that it had not been necessary to descend to the depth of 3000 feet, as the water would then have been at the temperature of 104° , and immediately applicable to hot-bathing establishments, and the many uses to which warm water may be put.

Artesian wells have been sunk in various places in Europe and in this country. In London there is one 800 feet deep, but those in America are not of very great depth.



FRANCIA, THE DICTATOR.

THIS singular individual, named José Gaspar Rodriguez Francia, was born near Assumpcion, in Paraguay, in the year 1757. His father was either a Frenchman or a Portuguese, and his mother a Paraguay Creole. He was one of several children. At the university of Cordova, in Tucuman, he received such an education as a classical seminary in the interior of South America could furnish. Being a person of a shrewd, saturnine disposition, and retired, studious habits, he contrived, by close application, to acquire a degree of knowledge seldom placed within the reach of a student whose pursuits were watched by the jealous ecclesiastics of that region. In addition to the branches of education common in the university, he contrived to acquire some knowledge of algebra, geometry and Greek. Having prosecuted his studies through the ordinary term, he returned to Paraguay, and entered into practice as a

lawyer.* His professional reputation, in that country where justice was regularly bought and sold, was not only unsullied by venality, but conspicuous for rectitude. The following anecdote of his uprightness has been related by a writer no way disposed to be unduly partial to the subject of it.

Francia had an acquaintance in Assumpcion, of the name of Domingo Rodriguez. This man had cast a longing eye upon a certain Naboth's vineyard; and this Naboth, named Estanislao Machain, was Francia's open enemy. Rodriguez, never doubting that the young advocate, like other lawyers, would undertake an unrighteous cause for a suitable reward, went to him, offered a liberal retaining fee, and directed him to institute a suit in law, for the recovery of the estate

* As he also studied medicine, it is supposed that the title of Dr. was derived from that circumstance; though it seems that he never practised in the medical profession.

in question. Francia saw at once that the pretensions were founded in injustice and fraud; and he not only refused to act as his counsel, but plainly told Rodriguez, that, much as he disliked his antagonist, Machain, yet, if he persisted in his iniquitous suit, he would himself undertake the cause of the injured party. Covetousness, however, is not so easily driven from its purpose. Rodriguez persisted, and, as he was a man of great fortune, the suit appeared to be going against Machain and his estate. At this critical stage of the affair, the slave who attended the door of the luckless Machain, was astonished, one evening, to see Francia present himself before it, wrapped up in his cloak. Knowing that the doctor and his master, like Montague and Capulet, were "smoke in each other's eyes," he refused him admittance, and ran to inform his master of this strange and unexpected visit. Machain, no less struck by the circumstance than his slave, for some time hesitated, but at length determined to admit his old enemy. In walked the silent visitor to Machain's chamber, and spread the papers connected with the law-case upon the table.

"Machain," said Francia, "you know I am your enemy. But I know that my friend Rodriguez meditates, and will certainly, unless I interfere, carry on against you an act of gross and lawless aggression. I have come to offer my services in your defence." The astonished man could scarcely credit his senses; but he poured forth his expressions of gratitude in terms of thankful acquiescence.

Pleas, it would appear, are made in that country by writing. The first paper sent into court confounded the adverse counsel, and staggered the judge, who was in their interest. "My friend," said that functionary to the leading advocate for the plaintiff, "I cannot proceed in this matter, unless you bribe Dr. Francia to be silent." "I will try," was the answer; and the advocate went to him with a hundred doubloons. He offered them as a bribe to Francia, to let the matter slip; and more surely to gain his consent, he advised him that this was done at the suggestion of the judge himself.

"Leave my house, with your vile proposals and contemptible gold!" was the indignant answer; and the menial tool of the unjust judge waited for no further dismissal. Francia, putting on his capote, hurried at once to the residence of that magistrate. "Sir," said he, after mentioning the attempt to bribe him, "you are a disgrace to law,

and a blot upon justice. You are, moreover, completely in my power; and, unless to-morrow you pronounce a decision in favor of my client, I will make your seat upon the bench too hot for you; and the insignia of your judicial office shall become the emblems of your shame." The morrow did not fail to bring a decision in favor of Francia's client. The judge lost his character, and the young doctor's fame resounded far and wide.

His uncommon reputation for integrity, a more than common acuteness and learning in his profession, profound knowledge of the foibles and peculiarities of his countrymen, together with his fame for a mysterious familiarity with the occult sciences, soon caused Dr. Francia to be regarded as a most remarkable personage. In the deplorable state of ignorance then existing in South America, it was a wonderful faculty that enabled a man to multiply and subtract the letters of the alphabet; to read a language written in strange characters; to measure an angle, and ascertain the height of a mountain with a theodolite. Francia, celebrated for universal knowledge, stood upon high vantage-ground, and in a great public exigence could not fail to be looked upon as one of the individuals destined to take the lead in public affairs.

When the province of La Plata revolted from Spain, the people of Paraguay refused to acknowledge the authority of the former government; in consequence of which an army was sent from Buenos Ayres, in 1810, under Gen. Belgrano, to reduce Paraguay. He was defeated and driven back. The next year a revolutionary government was established, and Francia, who had previously been in public office as a member of the municipal council and mayor of the capital, Assumpcion, was appointed secretary of the congress. Everything was in confusion; the army, as is usual on such occasions, seemed inclined to take the lead, and for some time, faction and terror alone prevailed; but Francia, at this critical moment, obtained an ascendancy which he never afterwards lost. His superior talents, address, and information were continually in requisition, and made him indispensable on all occasions. Nothing of any importance could be transacted without him. The members of the congress were entirely inexperienced in political matters, and grossly illiterate. Such a body attempted to found a republic, and we are told that their constitution was compiled from passages in Rollin's Ancient History!

The business proceeded with small success under such auspices. Intrigues, cabals and factions disgusted Francia to such a degree that he resigned his office, and retired to his country-seat. The reader may wish for a picture of so remarkable a man as this Dionysius of the western world, and we will copy the following description of him at the period of his retirement. It is drawn by an English merchant, who resided in Paraguay at that time.

"On one of those lovely evenings in Paraguay, after the south-west wind had both cleared and cooled the air, I was drawn, in my pursuit of game, into a peaceful valley, remarkable for its combination of all the striking features of the scenery of the country. Suddenly I came upon a neat and unpretending cottage. Up rose a partridge; I fired, and a bird came to the ground. A voice from behind called out, '*Buen tiro*,'—'a good shot.' I turned round, and beheld a gentleman of about fifty years of age, dressed in a suit of black, with a large scarlet *capote*, or cloak, thrown over his shoulders. He had a *maté*-cup in one hand, a cigar in the other; and a little urchin of a negro, with his arms crossed, was in attendance by the gentleman's side. The stranger's countenance was dark, and his black eyes were very penetrating; while his jet hair, combed back from a bold forehead, and hanging in natural ringlets over his shoulders, gave him a dignified and striking air. He wore on his shoes large golden buckles, and at the knees of his breeches the same.

"In exercise of the primitive and simple hospitality common in the country, I was invited to sit down under the corridor, and to take a cigar and *maté*, or cup of Paraguay tea. A celestial globe, a large telescope, and a theodolite were under the little portico; and I immediately inferred that the personage before me was no other than Doctor Francia. He introduced me to his library, in a confined room, with a very small window, and that so shaded by the roof of the corridor, as to admit the least portion of light necessary for study. The library was arranged on three rows of shelves, extending across the room, and might have consisted of three hundred volumes. There were many ponderous books on law; a few on the inductive sciences; some in French, and some in Latin, upon subjects of general literature, with Euclid's *Elements*, and some schoolboy treatises on algebra. On a large table were several heaps of law papers and processes. Sev-

eral folios, bound in vellum, were outspread upon it. A lighted candle, though placed there solely to light cigars, lent its feeble aid to illumine the room; while a *maté*-cup and inkstand, both of silver, stood on another part of the table. There was neither carpet nor mat on the brick floor; and the chairs were of such ancient fashion, size, and weight, that it required a considerable effort to move them from one spot to another."

Francia's withdrawal left the government without an efficient adviser. Embarrassments multiplied, and a second congress was convened; "such a congress," we are told, "as never met before in the world; a congress which knew not its right hand from its left; which drank infinite rum in the taverns, and had one wish,—that of getting on horseback home to its field-husbandry and partridge-shooting!" Such men, and we need not wonder, could not govern Paraguay. Francia was called from his retirement, and a new constitution was formed, with two chief magistrates, called consuls. Francia and a colleague were appointed to these offices for one year; each in supreme command for four months at a time; but as the former took the precedence, he had two thirds of the year for his own term of authority. Two carved chairs were prepared for the use of the consuls, one inscribed with the name of *Cæsar*, and the other with that of *Pompey*. It is needless to say which of the consuls took possession of the former. By consummate address and management, and by the influence which he had obtained over the troops, Francia got rid of his colleague at the close of the year, in 1814, and was proclaimed dictator for three years. At the end of that time, he found no difficulty in assuming the dictatorship for life. From the moment that he felt his footing firm, and his authority quietly submitted to, his whole character seemed to undergo a remarkable change. Without faltering or hesitation, without a pause of human weakness, he proceeded to frame the boldest and most extraordinary system of despotism that was ever the work of a single individual. He assumed the whole power, legislative and executive; the people had but one privilege and one duty,—that of obedience. All was done rapidly, boldly, unreservedly, and powerfully; he well knew the character of the people at whose head he had placed himself, and who, strange to say, once thought themselves possessed of energy and virtue enough for a republic.

The army, of course, was his chief in-

strument of power. It consisted of five thousand regular troops, and twenty thousand militia. He took care to secure their most devoted attachment, and it does not appear that during his whole career of despotism the smallest symptom of disaffection was ever manifested in their ranks. Francia, at the time of his accession to the supreme authority, was past the age when any dormant vice, save that of avarice, is likely to spring up in the character. He was not dazzled with the pomp and circumstance of exalted rank, nor even by that nobler weakness, the desire of fame; for he took no pains to make an ostentatious display of his power, or spread his reputation among foreign nations, or hand his name down to posterity. On the contrary, he carefully shrouded himself, and, as far as possible, his dominions, in haughty seclusion. His ruling, or rather his absorbing passion, was a love of power, and of power for itself alone. It was with him a pure, abstracted principle, free from desire of the splendor which usually surrounds it, of the wealth which usually supports it, and of the fame which usually succeeds it.

The most remarkable feature in his administration was the perfect isolation in which he placed the country. Intercourse with foreign nations was absolutely interdicted. Commerce was at an end. The ships lay high and dry, their pitchless seams yawning, on the banks of the rivers, and no man could trade but by the Dictator's license. No man could leave Paraguay on any pretext whatever, and it became as hermetically sealed against the escape of its inhabitants as the "Happy Valley" of Abyssinia. In this restrictive policy he was assisted by the peculiar geographical features of the country. Paraguay, in the midst of an immense and thinly-peopled continent, stood alone and impenetrable; its large rivers, wide forests and morasses, render travelling difficult and hazardous. Any one attempting to cross the frontiers must encounter the danger of losing himself in the wilderness, of being destroyed by those immense and terrible conflagrations to which the thick woods are subject, of excessive fatigue and exposure, of starvation, and of attacks from venomous reptiles, wild beasts and savages. The only possibility of escape is during the time that the river Paraguay overflows the surrounding plains; it is then barely practicable. A Frenchman, with five negroes, made the attempt in 1823. One of them died of fatigue, another by the bite of a snake. At one

time they were surrounded by the burning woods; and at another were involved in an immense glade in the midst of a forest, where they wandered about for fifteen days in search of an outlet, and were finally obliged to return by the opening through which they escaped. Being at last so reduced by fatigue and famine that they were unable to resist a single man, they were recaptured by a sergeant of militia.

But Francia's tyranny was not without signal benefits to the country. The land had peace, while all the rest of Spanish America was plunged into frightful anarchy, raging and ravening like a huge dog-kennel gone mad. Paraguay was domineered over by a tyrant, but Peru and Mexico, Chili and Guatimala, suffered the oppression of forty tyrants. Francia's soldiers were kept well drilled and in strict subordination, always ready to march where the wild Indians or other enemies made their appearance. Guard-houses were established at short distances along the rivers, and around the dangerous frontiers; and wherever an Indian cavalry horde showed itself, an alarm-cannon announced the danger; the military hastened to the spot, and the savage marauders vanished into the heart of the deserts. A great improvement, too, was visible in other quarters. The finances were accurately and frugally administered. There were no sinecures in the government; every official person was compelled to do his work. Strict justice between man and man was enforced in the courts of law. The affair of Naboth's vineyard could not have occurred under the Dictator's rule. He himself would accept no gift, not even the smallest trifle. He introduced schools of various sorts, promoted education by all the means in his power, and repressed superstition as far as it could be done among such a people. He promoted agriculture in a singular manner, not merely making two blades of grass grow where one grew before, but two crops of corn in a season. In the year 1820, a cloud of locusts devastated the whole country, and the prospect of universal famine threatened the land. The summer was at an end, and there was no foreign commerce by which supplies might be obtained from abroad. Francia hit upon an expedient, such as had never entered into the contemplation of any man in Paraguay before. He issued a peremptory command, ordering, under a severe penalty, that the farmers throughout the country should sow their lands anew. The result was, that a second crop was produced, and the people

were amazed with the important discovery that two harvests were, every year, possible in Paraguay. Agriculture made immense progress; the cultivation of many articles, before unknown in the country, was now successfully introduced, and, among others, rice and cotton. Manufactures kept pace with agriculture, and the clothing of the people, which had previously, for the most part, been imported ready made, at a great expense, was now entirely produced at home.

The city of Assumpcion was an assemblage of narrow, crooked, irregular streets, interspersed with trees, gardens, and clumps of tropical vegetation. It had no pavements, and, standing on a slope of ground, the sandy thoroughfare was torn by the rain into gullies, impassable, except by taking long leaps. Numerous springs issued from the soil in every part of the city, and formed streams, or stagnated into pools, where every species of filth became deposited. Francia determined on having it remodeled, paved, and straightened. The inhabitants were ordered to pull down their houses, and build them anew. The cost to private purses was great, and caused infinite grumbling; but Assumpcion is now an improved, paved city, and possesses convenient thoroughfares.

Francia's method of dealing with his subjects is well illustrated by the following anecdote. One afternoon, a shoemaker brought him a couple of grenadier's belts, which he had been ordered to make. The Dictator did not like the work. "Sentinel!" cried he; and in came the sentinel, when the subjoined conversation took place.

Dictator. Take this lazy whelp to the gallows, over the way, and march him under it half a dozen times. Now, (turning to the trembling shoemaker,) bring me such another pair of belts, and instead of walking *under* the gallows, we shall try how you can *swing* upon it.

Shoemaker. Please your excellency, I have done my best.

Dictator. Well, lazybones, if this be *your* best, I shall do *my* best to see that you never again spoil any more of the state's leather. The belts are good for nothing but to hang you up on that little machine which the grenadier will show you.

Shoemaker. God bless your excellency! The Lord forbid! I am your vassal, your slave. Day and night have I served, and will continue to serve, my lord. Only give me two more days to prepare the belts, and, by the soul of a sorrowful cobbler, I will make them to your excellency's liking.

Dictator. Off with him, sentinel!

Sentinel. March, lazybones!

Shoemaker. Most excellent sir, *this very night*, I will make the belts according to your excellency's pattern.

Dictator. Well, I will give you till morning; but you must pass under the gallows; it is a salutary process, and may at once quicken the work, and improve the workmanship.

Sentinel. March, you lazy dog! the supreme commands it.

The poor cobbler was marched off, and, after being compelled to take half a dozen turns under the gibbet, he fell to work with all his might. On the following morning, he had produced a pair of belts without a parallel in South America; and he is now, if still alive, belt-maker general of Paraguay, a most thriving and driving man, who must thank the gallows for putting him at the top of his profession.

The stern temper and arbitrary political system of Francia led him to acts which could not fail of being denounced as the wanton excesses of a sanguinary disposition. He put to death upwards of forty persons, as we are assured by a traveller, who utters the bitterest denunciations against him. He had frightful prisons, and banished disorderly persons to a desolate spot in the wilderness. How far his executions were wanton and unjustifiable, we have not sufficient means of judging. In the early part of his career, a plot was formed for the purpose of taking his life; it was discovered, and executions followed; after which we hear nothing more of these sanguinary deeds. His enemy, the bandit chieftain Artigas, had done a great deal of injury to Paraguay, and had incensed him further by fomenting revolts among his Indians. Yet, when one of this chieftain's lieutenants rebelled against him, and forced him to retreat with the wreck of his army, Artigas threw himself on the mercy of the Dictator, and was treated with clemency. He suffered him to reside in Paraguay, assigned him a house and lands, with a pension, and ordered the governor of the district to furnish him besides with whatever accommodations he desired, and to treat him with respect.

The Dictator's treatment of the foreigners who found their way into his dominions, was most rigorous and unjust, and has contributed more than any other cause to blacken his character among strangers. Paraguay was a sort of mouse-trap, easy enough to get into, but very difficult to get out of. M. Bonpland, the fellow-traveller

of Humboldt, and two Swiss naturalists, wandering into Francia's domains, were detained there many years. Sometimes, by special permission, an individual was allowed to leave the country, but these instances were rare. The foreigners detained were informed that they might pursue what avocations they pleased, provided they did not interfere with the government.

The father of Francia was a man of very eccentric habits; his brothers and one of his sisters were lunatics, and the Dictator himself was subject to fits of hypochondria, which seem occasionally to have affected his intellect. When under such influences, he would shut himself up for several days. On one of these occasions, being offended at the idle crowds gazing about the government-house, he gave the following order to a sentinel. — "If any person presumes to stop and stare at my house, fire at him; if you miss him, *this* is for a second shot, (handing him another musket loaded with ball;) if you miss again, I shall take care not to miss *you*!" This order being quickly made known throughout the city, the inhabitants carefully avoided passing near the house, or, if their business led them that way, they hurried on with their eyes fixed on the ground. After some weeks, an Indian, who knew nothing of the Spanish language, stopped to gaze at the house, and was ordered to move on, but still continued to loiter. The sentinel fired, and missed him. Francia, hearing the report, was alarmed, and summoned the sentinel. "What news, friend?" On being told the cause, he declared that he did not recollect having given such an order, and immediately revoked it.

The domestic establishment of the Dictator of Paraguay consisted of four slaves, three of them mulattoes, and the fourth a negro, whom he treated with great mildness. He led a very regular life, and commonly rose with the sun. As soon as he was dressed, the negro brought him a chafing-dish, a kettle, and a pitcher of water. The Dictator made his own tea; and after drinking it, he took a walk under the colonnade fronting upon the court, smoking a cigar, which he always took care previously to unroll, in order to ascertain that it contained no poison; although his cigars were always made by his sister. At six o'clock came the barber, an unwashed and ragged mulatto, given to drink, but the Dictator's only confidential menial. If his excellency happened to be in good humor, he chatted over the soap-dish, and the shaver was often

intrusted with important commissions in preparing the public for the Dictator's projects; so that he might be said to be the official gazette of Paraguay. He then stepped out, in his dressing-gown of printed calico, to the outer colonnade, an open space which ranged all around the building; here he walked about, receiving at the same time such persons as he admitted to an audience. About seven, he withdrew to his room, where he remained till nine. The officers then came to make their reports, and receive orders. At eleven, his chief secretary brought the papers which required inspection by him, and wrote from his dictation till noon. He then sat down to table, and ate a frugal dinner. After this, he took a siesta, drank a cup of *maté*, and smoked a cigar. Till four or five in the afternoon, he again attended to business; the escort then arrived to attend him, and he rode out to inspect the public works. While on this duty, he was armed with a sabre and a pair of double-barrelled pocket-pistols. He returned home about nightfall, and sat down to study till nine, when he took his supper, consisting of a roast pigeon and a glass of wine. In fine weather, he took an evening walk in the outer colonnade. At ten, he gave the watchword, and, returning into the house, he fastened all the doors with his own hands.

Though possessing unlimited sway over the finances of the state, he made no attempt to enrich himself, and his small salary was always in arrears to him. His two nephews, who were officers in the army, were dismissed, lest they should presume upon their relationship. He banished his sister from his house, because she had employed a grenadier, one of the soldiers of the state, on some errand of her own. He was a devoted admirer of Napoleon, whose downfall he always deplored. The Swiss traveller, Rengger, who, after a long detention, was permitted to depart, left behind him a print of the French emperor. Francia sent an express after him, inquiring the price of it. Rengger sent him for answer, that the print was at his excellency's service,—he did not sell such trifles. The Dictator immediately despatched the print after him;—he would receive no gifts. There seems to have originally existed in him somewhat of that simple and severe virtue, which is more characteristic of a stern republican than of a sanguinary tyrant. He has left one witticism upon record, which we will subjoin, as it is much in character. Rengger, who was a surgeon,

was about to dissect a body. "Doctor," said the Dictator, "examine the neck, and see whether the Paraguayans have not an extra bone there, which hinders them from holding up their heads, and speaking out."

In the accounts which were written of this extraordinary man during his lifetime, he has been represented as an arbitrary and cruel oppressor, universally detested, and whose death, inasmuch as he had made no provision for the continuance of the government, would plunge the state into anarchy and ruin. Both these representations have been completely falsified by the event. Francia died peaceably, on the twentieth day of September, 1840, aged eighty-three; the people crowding round his house with much emotion, and even, as we are assured, with tears of anxiety and sympathy. The funeral discourse pronounced on the occasion surprised the world; it was filled with praises of the deceased Dictator, whom it represented as the real father of his country.

Enough is known of Dr. Francia to assure us that he was a most remarkable individual; but it would be both difficult and unsafe to draw his character with confidence and minuteness, from the meagre and questionable materials which we possess respecting him. That he was a man of iron integrity in a country where corruption and venality were almost matters of course with public men; that he spent thirty years of his life in toilsome devotion to his country; that he was above the vulgar love of money, and disdained to take advantage of his unlimited power for enriching himself,—are all incontrovertible facts; that his government was also, on the whole, advantageous to his country, is not to be denied. But what were the motives which guided his conduct? Was it patriotism, or a simple love of power? Why adopt so strange a system of policy—that of interdicting all intercourse with other nations? Was it from a conviction that this was best adapted to the condition of the people, or that it was indispensable to the preservation of his despotic sway? Why enshroud himself in such mysterious isolation, holding as little commerce of affection and sympathy with his fellow-men as of trade with foreign nations? These are questions which we cannot easily answer. If we may rely upon the scattered glimpses of his career that have been presented to us, we should venture to decide that the main elements of his character consisted of stern integrity and devoted patriotism; blended, however, with natural sternness of temper, a love of

power, and a conviction that a despotic government was best suited to the condition of the people. His singular habits were, probably, the result of native eccentricity; his exclusive policy was doubtless adopted for the double motive of perpetuating his authority, and ensuring tranquillity to the country. Of the vigor of his mind and energy of his character, there can be no doubt. That he should have created and sustained, for thirty years, the sternest despotism that the world ever witnessed, in the heart of a continent where everything besides was tending to the dissolution of tyrannical power and the establishment of popular institutions, is a phenomenon that may well excite the curiosity and astonishment of the world. We may, indeed, suppose that his government was modelled after that of the Jesuits, the effects of which were still visible in his time; but that he should have been able to assume to himself, and exercise for so long a period, the unlimited power wielded by these sagacious priests, must still excite our surprise.



AN INDIAN GIANT.

In May, 1792, an Indian, named *Basileo Huyalas*, was brought from the city of Ica to Lima, in Peru, where he was exhibited, on account of his enormous stature and strange appearance. He was seven feet two inches high; his head and upper parts were prodigious, while his legs were comparatively small. He weighed three hundred and sixty pounds.



TECUMSEH.

THIS Indian warrior may be justly ranked as among the most famous of the race. He was the son of a Shawanese chief, and was one of three children produced at a single birth. These all became famous, but Tecumseh and Ellskatawa, or the Prophet, were particularly celebrated.

Tecumseh was distinguished in the wars of 1792, and shared in the battle which caused the defeat of St. Clair. In 1795, the hatchet was laid aside, in consequence of a treaty of peace. For several years Ellskatawa had given himself up to intoxication; but in 1804 he pretended to have a vision, in which he had a revelation from heaven commanding him to go and tell the Indians to abandon drunkenness, lying, and stealing, if they desired to escape destruction. From this time, he took up the name and pretensions of a prophet, and collected a large number of adherents. It is curious that, while he prescribed a reformation of morals, his followers were the most abandoned rovers, robbers, and adventurers, which could be found among the western tribes.

The prophet soon acquired great fame,

and was visited from afar, by men, women, and children, anxious to behold so remarkable a man. It was said that he wrought miracles, and the most wonderful works. The true secret of all this was a crafty design, on the part of Ellskatawa, to collect a large body of Indians together at Greenville, where he had established himself, doubtless with a desire to use them against the United States. The government penetrated his secret; and seeing that immense numbers had already been assembled, they required them to remove further west. Accordingly, in 1808, he went, with all his followers, and settled down on the north bank of the Wabash, near the mouth of the river Tippecanoe. Here he continued for some years, his brother, Tecumseh, taking the lead in all affairs of a public nature. This chief appears to have had an unconquerable hatred to the Americans, and about the year 1810 he was earnestly engaged in bringing about a confederacy among all the western and Canadian tribes, with a view to a united effort to crush our settlements in that quarter. He travelled thousands of miles in the

course of his vain efforts, and appears, like our New England King Philip, of earlier days, to have exerted every art of intrigue and oratory to inflame the Indians to join in his enterprise. He was entirely successful, and the result of his stupendous plan was only defeated by events over which Tecumseh had no control.

In 1811, the Indians began to murder the white settlers along the borders of Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri; and Harrison, then governor in that quarter, proceeded with a band of nine hundred men into the Indian country. About the end of September, 1811, he approached the settlement of the prophet. Tecumseh was now absent; and in reply to a message from Harrison, the prophet and his advisers sent an insolent reply. After some further attempts at negotiation, finding that the hope of peace was vain, the American general advanced, and on the morning of the thirtieth of October the famous battle of Tippecanoe was fought. The Indians displayed amazing skill and bravery, while their prophet sat on a hill near by, singing a war-song. But all was in vain. The valor and discipline of the Americans prevailed, and the savages were defeated with great slaughter. Their settlement was now abandoned, and all the gigantic schemes of Tecumseh were frustrated.

The haughty chief, however, could not conquer his desire of revenge. He joined the British in the war of 1812; and in the battle of the Moravian Towns, in October, 1813, he was present, heading the Indian forces of two thousand men. He and they fought desperately; but the Kentucky troops came up, and, headed by Col. Johnson, made a furious attack upon them. In the heat of the engagement Tecumseh was shot dead, and his savage troops fled into a neighboring swamp. Such was the end of the bravest and most talented Indian of modern days.



An Abyssinian of the Galla Tribe.

ABYSSINIA.

ABYSSINIA is one of those strange, remote countries, the very name of which excites an emotion of curious wonder. Perhaps no part of the world presents a more singular assemblage of objects.

In the first place, the people, though natives of Africa, are not negroes, nor are they Arabians. They are, indeed, a peculiar people, divided into several varieties. Instead of possessing the easy disposition

and mild qualities of the negroes, they are restless, savage, and brutal, almost beyond any other known tribes of men. The Scotch traveller, Bruce, was at Gondar, the capital, and he tells us that he seldom went out without seeing dead bodies lying in the streets, left to be devoured by the dogs and hyenas! Alvarez, who lived there some years, says he was invited to a feast where, among the dishes, he was offered raw flesh, with warm blood! We are told that the people cut the flesh from the cattle while alive; and sometimes, after a large piece has been taken out, draw the skin over it, and drive the bleeding beast along on its way. Sometimes, when a party is assembled for a feast, and are seated, the oxen are brought to the door, the flesh is cut off, and the meat

devoured, while the agonized brutes are filling the air with their bellowings!

These horrid things are said to be less common now than formerly; but the manners of the people, in other respects, are barbarous in the extreme. Yet, strange to say, they profess Christianity! They have numerous churches, and abundance of nunneries and monasteries. Their veneration for the Virgin Mary is unbounded; and they even outdo the European Catholics in their zeal for paying reverence at her shrine. Their saints are almost innumerable, and surpass in miraculous power those of the Romish calendar. The clergy do not attempt to prevent divorces, nor even polygamy. Alas, how far may the profession of Christianity be from the practice of it!



FALLS OF NIAGARA.

It has been often remarked that no person is insensible to the beauty of flowing water. When it glides quietly on in a stream, its character is that of gentleness, and it suggests only ideas of sweet and tranquil beauty. But when it expands to a greater width, and its floods pour around in a more impetuous tide, it assumes an aspect of grandeur, and stirs in the bosom the emotions of sublimity.

The beauty of running water has, indeed, long been celebrated, and the river has often

suggested an image illustrative of human life. Even Pliny, who wrote nearly two thousand years ago, compares a river to the progress of man. "Its beginnings," says he, "are insignificant, and its infancy is frivolous; it plays among the flowers of a meadow, it waters a garden, or turns a mill. Gathering strength in its growth, it becomes wild and impetuous. Impatient of the restraint it meets with in the hollows of the mountains, it is restless and fretful, quick in its turnings, and unsteady in its course.

Now it is a roaring cataract, tearing up and overturning whatever opposes its progress, and it shoots headlong down a rock; then it becomes a gloomy, sullen pool, buried in the bottom of a glen. Recovering breath of repose, it again dashes along, till, tired of uproar and mischief, it quits all that it has swept along, and leaves the opening of the valley strewn with the rejected waste. Now, quitting its retirement, it comes abroad into the world, journeying with more prudence and discretion through cultivated fields, yielding to circumstances, and winding round what would trouble it to overwhelm or remove. It passes through the populous cities, and all the busy haunts of man, tenders its services on every side, and becomes the support and ornament of the country. Increased by numerous alliances, and advanced in its course, it becomes grave and stately in its motions, loves peace and quiet, and in majestic silence rolls on its mighty waters, till it is laid to rest in the vast abyss."

Cataracts, or falls, are formed by the descent of rivers, over rocks, from a higher to a lower level. That of Niagara is not the highest in the world, but it is remarkable for forcing over, in its mighty current, a larger body of water than any other. The highest waterfall of Europe is that of Gavarnie, in France, which is 1350 feet; the highest in Asia is that of Garispa, in Hindostan, 1000 feet; the highest in America is that of Tequendama, in New Grenada, 580 feet. The Falls of Niagara are but about 170 feet in height; but the immense body of water that rushes, in an almost undivided mass, down this distance, produces upon the beholder the most intense wonder, and furnishes one of the most sublime objects to be found in the world.

Such is the mighty scale on which this cataract is constructed, that a person does not at first sight feel its full grandeur; but, by degrees, it seems to increase in size; its awful front appears to rise higher, its prodigious volume to expand, and its whole aspect to assume a more fearful and sublime physiognomy.

One characteristic of this great natural wonder is its steadiness. It flows on, and

on, with a ceaseless, patient, unvarying tide. It pauses not to take breath; it goes on, during the still watches of the night; it is at work at sunrise and at sunset. It does not shrink or wax faint in the drought of summer, nor does the freshest of spring disturb its equable yet sublime current. The chains of winter cannot bind it; it pauses not amid the pealing thunder or the raging of the equinoctial tempest; it heeds not the presence or absence of man; it takes no note of time, save that it

"Notches its centuries in the eternal rocks!"

Emblem of God and eternity, it rolls on, speaking only of Him who made it. Nor is sublimity the only characteristic of this greatest of waterfalls. There are traits of beauty, which seem even to heighten the effect of its grandeur. The rainbow, ever playing in sunshine over its awful front, and seeming indifferent to the boiling whirlpool beneath; the tide of many-colored gems, into which the spray often seems converted, as it plunges over the rocks; the heaps of foam, white as wool, dancing on the billows that rush away from the foot of the fall; and more than all, an aspect of tranquillity, of repose, which settles upon the whole scene, when viewed at a little distance, are all incidents which blend in the majestic picture imprinted on the memory by this stupendous yet lovely work of nature's God.

The Falls of Niagara have been the frequent theme of poetry, but the following lines by Brainard are deemed the finest that have been produced upon the subject.

"The thoughts are strange that crowd into my brain,
While I look upward to thee. It would seem
As if God poured thee from his 'hollow hand,'
And hung his bow upon thine awful front;
And spoke in that loud voice, which seemed to him
Who dwelt in Patmos for his Saviour's sake,
'The sound of many waters;' and had bade
Thy flood to chronicle the ages back,
And notch His centuries in the eternal rocks!"

"Deep calleth unto deep, and what are we,
That hear the question of that voice sublime?
O! what are all the notes that ever rung
From war's vain trumpet, by thy thundering side!
Yea, what is all the riot man can make
In his short life, to thy unceasing roar!
And yet, bold babbler, what art thou to Him,
Who drowned a world, and heaped the waters far
Above its loftiest mountains? — a light wave,
That breaks, and whispers of its Maker's might!"



THE SLOTH.

This singular animal, which is confined to South America, is destined by nature to be produced, to live, and to die, in the trees; and to do justice to him, naturalists must examine him in his upper element. He is a scarce and solitary animal. He inhabits remote and gloomy forests, where snakes take up their abode, and where cruelly-stinging ants and scorpions, and swamps, and innumerable thorny shrubs and bushes, obstruct the steps of civilized man. This extraordinary creature appears to us forlorn and miserable, ill put together, and totally unfit to enjoy the blessings which have been so bountifully given to the rest of animated nature. It has no soles to its feet, and it is evidently ill at ease, when it tries to move on the ground; and it then looks up in your face, with a countenance that seems to say, "Have pity on me, for I am in pain and sorrow!"

The sloth, in its wild state, spends its whole life in the trees, and never leaves them but through force or accident. An all-ruling Providence has ordained man to tread on the surface of the earth, the eagle to soar in the expanse of the skies, and the monkey and squirrel to inhabit the trees; still, these may change their relative situations, without feeling much inconvenience; but the sloth is doomed to spend his whole life in the trees; and, what is more extraordinary, not *upon* the branches, like the squirrel and the monkey, but *under* them. He moves suspended from the branch, he rests suspended from it, and he sleeps suspended from it. To enable him to do this, he must have a very different formation from that of any other known quadruped.

Hence his seemingly bungled conformation is at once accounted for; and, in lieu of the sloth leading a painful life and entailing a melancholy and miserable existence on its progeny, it is but fair to surmise that it enjoys life just as much as any other animal, and that its extraordinary formation and singular habits, are but further proofs to engage us to admire the wonderful works of Omnipotence!

It must be observed, that the sloth does not hang head downward like the vampyre. When asleep, he supports himself on a branch, parallel to the earth. He first seizes the branch with one arm, and then with the other; and after that brings up both his legs, one by one, to the same branch, so that all four are in a line; he seems perfectly at rest in this position. Now had he a tail, he would be at a loss to know what to do with it, in this position. Were he to draw it up, with his legs, it would interfere with them; and were he to let it hang down, it would become the sport of the winds. Thus his deficiency of tail is a benefit to him. It is merely an apology for a tail, scarcely exceeding an inch and a half in length.

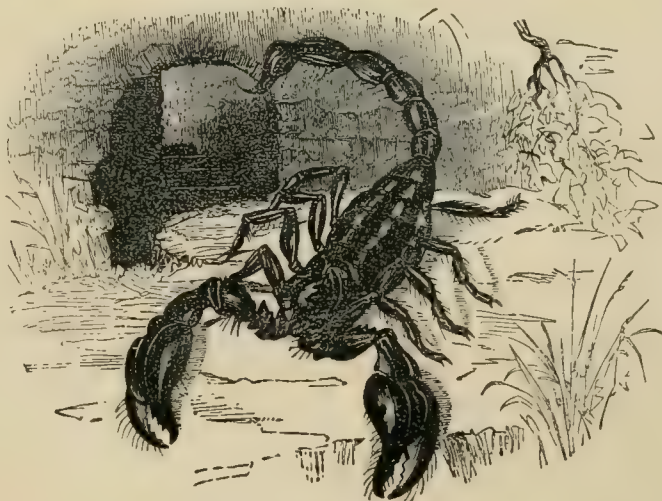
There is a saying among the Indians of Guiana that, when the wind blows, the sloth begins to travel. In calm weather, he remains tranquil, probably not liking to cling to the brittle extremity of the branches, lest they should break with him, in passing from one tree to another; but as soon as the wind rises, the branches of the neighboring trees become interwoven, and then the sloth seizes hold of them, and pursues his journey in safety. There is seldom an

entire day of calm in these forests. The trade-wind generally sets in about ten o'clock in the morning, and thus the sloth may set off after breakfast and get a considerable way before dinner. He travels at a good round pace; and, were you to see him pass from tree to tree, you would never think of calling him a *sloth*.

"One day, as we were crossing the Essequibo," says Waterton, "I saw a large two-toed sloth on the ground, upon the bank. How he got there, nobody could tell. The Indian said he had never surprised a sloth in such a situation before;—he would hardly have come there to drink, for both above and below the place, the branches of the trees touched the water, and afforded him an easy and safe access to it. Be this as it may, though the trees were not above twenty yards from him, he could not make his way through the sand time enough to escape before we landed. As soon as we got up to him, he threw himself upon his back, and defended himself in gallant style, with his fore legs. 'Come, poor fellow,' said I to him, 'if thou hast got into a hobble

to-day, thou shalt not suffer for it;—I'll take no advantage of thee in misfortune. The forest is large enough both for thee and me to rove in; go thy ways up above, and enjoy thyself in these endless wilds; it is more than probable thou wilt never have another interview with man; so fare thee well.'

"On saying this, I took up a large stick, which was lying there, held it for him to hook on, and then conveyed him to a high and stately mora. He ascended with wonderful rapidity, and in about a minute he was almost at the top of the tree. He now went off in a side direction, and caught hold of the branch of a neighboring tree; he then proceeded towards the heart of the forest. I stood looking on, lost in amazement at his singular mode of progress. I followed him with my eye, till the intervening branches closed in betwixt us; and then I lost sight forever of the two-toed sloth. I was going to add, that I never saw a sloth take to his heels in such earnest; but the expression will not do, for the sloth has no heels!"

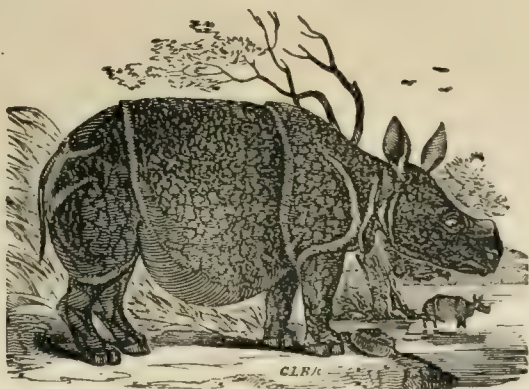


THE SCORPION.

Of this hateful insect there are several species, all confined to hot countries. They are chiefly found in old ruins, and dry, stony places. It is common in Arabia and other Eastern regions, and is frequently alluded to in the Scriptures.

The size of the body is equal to that of a hen's egg. It has eight legs, and a pair of claws resembling those of a crab. It has

eight eyes and two feelers. The tail is terminated by a sharp point, with which it strikes its enemy. When it enters the flesh, a virulent venom is left in the wound, which often causes death. It is a crafty insect, and a certain writer says, "As far as an irrational animal can resemble Satan, this insect resembles that evil, malignant, envenomed spirit."



THE RHINOCEROS.

AFTER the elephant, the rhinoceros is the most powerful of all quadrupeds. He is about twelve feet in length, from the extremity of the snout to the tail; and six or seven feet in height. The circumference of his body is very near equal to his length. He is, therefore, like the elephant in bulk; and if he appears much smaller, it is because his legs are much shorter in proportion to those of the elephant. But he differs widely from that sagacious animal, in his natural faculties and his intelligence, having received from nature merely what she grants in common to all animals. Deprived of all feeling in the skin, having no organ answering the purpose of hands, nor instinct for the sense of feeling, he has nothing instead of a trunk but a movable upper lip, in which centres all his dexterity.

He is superior to other animals only in strength, size, and the offensive weapon which he carries upon his nose, and which is peculiar to him. This weapon is a very hard solid horn, and placed more advantageously than the horns of ruminating animals; these only protect the superior parts of the head and neck, whilst the horn of the rhinoceros defends all the exterior parts of the snout, and preserves the mouth and the face from insult; so that the tiger attacks more readily the elephant, in seizing his trunk, than the rhinoceros, which he cannot attack in front, without the danger of being killed; for the body and limbs are covered with an impenetrable skin, and this animal fears neither the claws of the tiger nor the lion, nor even the weapons of the hunter. His skin is a dark leather, of the same color, but thicker and harder than that of the elephant. He does not feel the sting of flies. He cannot contract his skin; it is only folded, by large wrinkles, on the neck, the

shoulders, and the posteriors, to facilitate the motions of the legs, which are massive, and terminate in large feet, armed with three great claws.

The skin of the two-horned rhinoceros is much more easily penetrable than that of the single-horned. His head is larger in proportion than the elephant, but his eyes are smaller, which he never opens entirely, and they are so situated that the animal can see only what is in a direct line before him. The upper jaw projects above the lower, and the upper lip has a motion, and may be lengthened six or seven inches. It is terminated by a sharp edge, which enables the animal with more facility than other quadrupeds to gather branches and grass, and divide them into handfuls, as the elephant does with his trunk.

A rhinoceros arrived in London in 1739, which had been sent from Bengal. Though quite young, the expenses of his food and voyage amounted to nearly £1000 sterling. He was fed with rice, sugar, and hay. They gave him, daily, seven pounds of rice mixed with three pounds of sugar, which they divided into three parts. He had also a great quantity of hay and green grass, to which he gave the preference. His drink was nothing but water, of which he drank a great quantity at once. He was of a quiet disposition, and let his manager touch him on any part of his body. He grew unruly when he was struck, or was hungry, and in both cases he could not be appeased without giving him something to eat. When he was angry, he leaped forward with impetuosity, to a great height, beating furiously the walls with his head, which he did with a prodigious quickness, notwithstanding his heavy appearance.

This rhinoceros, when he was two years

old, was not much higher than a young cow, but his body was very long and thick. The tongue seemed to be very soft, like that of a calf. His eyes had no vivacity; they were like those of a hog, in form, and were placed very low, that is, near the opening of the nostrils.

The horn of the rhinoceros is more valued by the Indians than the ivory of the elephant, not so much on account of the matter, but for its substance, to which they attribute divers virtues and medicinal properties. The white ones, as the most rare, are those which they value the most. Drinking-cups, made of this horn, are used by the Indian princes, under the erroneous idea that when any poisonous fluid is put into them it will ferment and run over the top.

The rhinoceros, without being ferocious or carnivorous, or even very wild, is, nevertheless, untamable. He is of the nature of the hog, blunt and grunting, without intellect, without sentiment, and without tractableness. These animals are also, like the hog, very much inclined to wallow in the mire; they like damp and marshy places, and seldom leave the banks of rivers. They are found in Asia and Africa, in Bengal, Siam, Laos, in the Mogul dominions, in Sumatra, in Java, in Abyssinia, and about the Cape of Good Hope. But, in general, the species is not so numerous or so universally spread as that of the elephant. The female brings forth but one young, and at a great distance of time.

Without being useful as the elephant, the rhinoceros is very hurtful, by the prodigious devastation which he makes in the fields. The skin is the most valuable part of this animal, and makes the best and hardest leather in the world. The flesh is excellent, according to the taste of the Indians and negroes. Kolben says he has often eaten it with great pleasure. The rhinoceros feeds upon herbs, thistles, prickles, and shrubs; and he prefers this wild food to the sweet pastures and the verdant meadows. He is very fond of sugar-cane, and eats all sorts of corn. Having no taste whatever for flesh, he neither molests small animals nor fears the large ones, living generally in peace with all, even the tiger, who often accompanies him without daring to attack him.

Rhinoceroses do not herd together, nor march in troops, like the elephant; they are wilder and more solitary, and perhaps more difficult to be hunted and subdued. They never attack man, unless provoked; but then they become furious, and are very formidable. The steel of Damascus, the

scimitars of Japan cannot make an incision in his skin; the darts and lances cannot pierce him through. His skin even resists a musket-ball; those of lead become flattened upon his leather, and iron ingots cannot penetrate through it. The only places absolutely penetrable in his body, armed with a cuirass, are the belly, the eyes, and round the ears; so that huntsmen, instead of attacking him standing, follow him at a distance, by his track, and approach him at the time that he sleeps or rests himself.

A rhinoceros, about one year old, was brought from Calcutta to Boston some years since. The engraving at the head of this article furnishes a very exact representation of this animal. Its length from the nose to the insertion of the tail was six feet, and its height three feet four inches. The length of its head was eighteen inches, that of its tail thirteen inches. The horn had not made its appearance upon the nose, but there was a large protuberance which indicated the place where it was growing, and seemed to form the root or basis of it. The animal when disturbed made a frequent noise, like a young calf. It had very much the air and manners of a hog, betraying no fear or shyness, but seemed constantly intent upon getting something to eat. It fed upon hay, potatoes, and grain, and so greedy was its appetite, that nothing came amiss.



THE BAMBOO.

It is doubtful whether Nature has conferred upon the inhabitants of hot countries any boon more valuable than the bamboo—to such a multitude of useful purposes are

its light, strong, and graceful stems applied. They are pushed forth by a strong, jointed, subterraneous root-stock, which is the trunk of the tree, the shoots being the branches. The latter are very hard, and hollow inside, being divided by numerous partitions.

When full grown, a bamboo is a straight rod, bearing a number of stiff branches, which shoot at nearly right angles from the main stem. It seems, at first, difficult to imagine how such a stem elevates itself through the dense mass of rigid branches, which cross each other in every direction. This is, however, arranged in a very simple manner. The young shoot, when it is first produced, is a perfectly simple sucker, like a shoot of asparagus; but, having a sharp point, it easily pierces the dense and overhanging branches. It is only when it has arrived at its full length, and has penetrated through all obstacles, that it forms its lateral shoots, which readily interpose themselves amid the stems.

There are many species of the bamboo, all of which are useful. The young shoots of some are eaten like asparagus; the full grown stems, when ripe and hard, are con-

verted into bows, arrows, quivers, fishing-rods, masts of vessels, bed-posts, walking-sticks, floors, supporters of rustic bridges, chairs, and a variety of other purposes. By notching their sides, the Malays form wonderfully light ladders. Bruised and crushed in water, the leaves and stems form Chinese paper; some species are used for lining tea-chests; cut into lengths, and the partitions knocked out, they form durable water-pipes. Slit into strips, they form excellent materials for weaving mats, baskets, window-blinds, and even the sails of boats.

It is, however, for the purposes of building that the bamboo is most important. The frame-work of the houses in Sumatra is chiefly composed of this material. The floors are made of the whole canes, laid close to each other. The sides are made of the stems, split and flattened, and the roof is formed of a thatch split into various strips.

Great hopes are entertained of introducing this most useful tree into other countries; and, as it grows in dry and stony places, where nothing else flourishes, its introduction would be of great importance.



THE CROCODILE.

THE crocodile belongs to the genus *Lacerta*. It has a compressed, jagged tail; five toes on the fore feet, and four on the hind. It is the largest of the lizard kind.

An account of one dissected at Siam was sent to the Royal Academy at Paris. It was eighteen and a half feet long; the

legs were short, — including the thigh and paw, only two feet two inches; the toes were armed with large claws, nearly an inch and a half long. The head was of considerable length; the mouth fifteen inches long, having twenty-seven teeth in the upper and fifteen in the lower jaw. The

eye was very small in proportion to the rest of the body; the color of the upper part of the body was a dark brown, and below of a whitish citron; from the shoulders to the extremity of the tail he was covered with large, square scales, in number about fifty-two. The whole skin was defended with a kind of armor, contributing greatly to its defence.

The crocodile lays eggs of the size of those of a goose, to the number of about sixty, which she covers over with sand, leaving them, like the ostrich, to be hatched

by the heat of the sun. They are to be met with in the rivers Nile, Niger, and Ganges, and in many other large rivers in the southern parts of Asia and Africa. It is of enormous voracity and strength; is amphibious, swims with amazing fleetness, attacks mankind and the largest animals with most daring impetuosity. Of all monsters, it has the largest mouth, and moves both its jaws equally.

The *alligator* of America resembles the crocodile, but it is not of the same species.



THE SPIDER.

THE *aranea*, or spider, is a numerous genus of insects. The mouth is furnished with short, horny jaws; lip rounded at the apex, feelers two, curved, jointed, and sharp at the tip. The eyes are eight, rarely six; no antennæ; its feet are eight; and behind, it is furnished with teats, for spinning. These are one of the most wonderful contrivances of nature. The thread of the spider consists of four thousand strands. Leeuwenhoeck says that it would take four millions of strands, of the smallest spiders, to make a thread as large as a horse hair. The spiders fix the ends of the threads, by applying the nipples to any substance, and the thread lengthens in proportion as the animal recedes from the place. They are able, by means of their claws, to reascend the threads with great ease and rapidity, much

in the same manner as sailors warp up a rope.

Spiders differ much in their appearance, size, and habits. Some are smooth, and others are covered with hair. The *Tarantula*, found in Italy, has a body as large as a small nut.

Many spiders are exceedingly venomous. Their bite, though small, is not only dangerous, but in some cases mortal. Spiders lay from five to six hundred eggs. It is astonishing to see the instinctive ingenuity they employ for ensnaring flies, the objects of their prey. When a fly is caught in the web, the spider, which was before concealed in ambush, in a moment rushes from its hiding-place, darts upon it, firmly fixes its claws upon it, and then sucks out all its juice, which soon terminates its life.



POCAHONTAS.

THIS celebrated princess, so intimately connected with some of the most interesting events in the history of Virginia, was born about the year 1594. Her father, Powhatan, was called Emperor of Virginia, being the most powerful and famous of all the Indian chiefs in that quarter. His dominions extended from James' river, called originally Powhatan river, north to the Patuxent, and also comprised a portion of the territory on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake. Captain John Smith, a celebrated member of the Virginia colony, paid a visit to Powhatan in 1607, while on an exploring expedition up James' river, in company with Capt. Newport and a small party of men.

The English were at peace with the savages, and were received by them in a friendly manner. The residence of Powhatan was then at a small town on the bank of the river, in front of three islets, just below the spot where Richmond now stands. The Virginian emperor was then about sixty years of age, gray-headed, and of a lofty

demeanor. He was dressed in raccoon-skins, and bore a crown of feathers. At the entertainment given to Smith's party, some of the Indians expressed their apprehensions of the English, and counselled hostilities against them; but they were silenced by Powhatan. "These strangers," said he, "want but a little ground, which we can easily spare. Why should we object to their coming into our territory?" Supposing this language to have been sincere—the Virginian emperor had among his advisers men who possessed more shrewdness and foresight than himself.

Whether Pocahontas was present at this interview, we are not told; nor is there any mention of her till the occurrence by which she is best known to the world,—the saving of Smith's life. Powhatan, it is said, was a great dissembler, and even while addressing his visitors in the language of peace and friendship, and interchanging presents with them, was plotting a scheme for their destruction. Hostilities broke out shortly after, and before Smith and Newport

could return to Jamestown, that settlement was attacked by a strong body of the Indians. The English were quite defenceless, having no arms at hand, as their imbecile governor, Wingfield, fearing a conspiracy of the people, had locked up their guns, and prohibited military exercises. Jamestown would have been taken, and the inhabitants massacred, but for a fortunate accident. A cannon-shot, from a vessel in the river, cut off the branch of a tree, which fell among a party of the Indians, who were rushing to the assault. This so terrified them, that they fled in all directions, and abandoned the undertaking.

A treaty of peace followed, and Smith, with a party of men, made several excursions into the interior, to obtain supplies of provisions. The rivers were covered with innumerable flocks of wild fowl, and the woods abounded with deer and turkeys. The necessities of the colonists were soon relieved, but the restless activity of Smith, and a desire to silence the murmurs of some of his countrymen, who asserted that he had not made sufficient endeavors to explore the head streams of the Chickahominy, induced him to continue his enterprises during the season of plenty.

In the winter of 1607 he collected a small number of followers, and proceeded once more in a barge up that river as far as it was navigable. Having left the barge in a wide bay, out of the reach of the Indians, with positive orders that none of the crew should leave her on any account, he rowed further up, in a small canoe, attended by two Englishmen and two friendly Indians. He was scarcely out of sight, when the crew of the barge, impatient of restraint, disobeyed his orders, and went on shore. At the very spot where they landed, a body of three hundred savages, headed by Opechancanough, brother to Powhatan, were lying in ambush, watching for a favorable opportunity to attack the barge. One of the Englishmen, straying from the rest, fell into their hands, and from him they extorted information of the object and route of Smith. They immediately put the captive to death in a cruel manner, and followed Smith with all their force and with the utmost caution.

Twenty miles up the river, they discovered his two English companions fast asleep by a fire, in the woods; they immediately shot them with their arrows, and then followed on the track of Smith, who had gone to shoot some wild fowl, for provisions. Smith was proceeding up the bank of the

river, not far from his canoe, when he discovered the savages close upon him. He endeavored to retreat, and, finding the enemy pressing hard upon him, shielded himself by tying his Indian guide to his left arm, while he exercised the right in his defence. In this manner, he contrived to load and fire his musket, and ward off the arrows of his assailants, while he retreated slowly towards the water. He shot three of them dead, and wounded several others; and, in this manner, of facing one way and walking another, kept the enemy, who were astonished at his bravery and skill, at a safe distance. But, not being able to pay close attention to his steps, he sank, at last, into a miry spot, so deep that, owing to his embarrassing connection with his guide, he was unable to extricate himself. Here he remained a considerable time, the savages not daring to attack him so long as he held the musket. But, the cold having benumbed his limbs, he could make no further resistance; yet no man dared to lay hands on him, and those who made the nearest approach to him, were observed to tremble with fear. He at length threw down his arms, and made signs that he had surrendered. The Indians now pulled him out of the mud, and took him to the fire where his two companions had been killed. They chafed his benumbed limbs, and restored them to activity.

He called for their chief, and Opechancanough appeared. Smith, with perfect self-possession, entered into such conversation with him as could be carried on by signs. He had an ivory pocket-compass with him, which he showed to Opechancanough and his attendants. "Much they marvelled," says the narrative, "at the playing of the fly and needle, which they could see so plainly, and yet not touch, because of the glass that covered them. But when he demonstrated, by that globe-like jewel, the roundness of the earth and skies, the sphere of the sunne, and moone, and starres, and how the sunne did chase the night about the world continually,—the greatness of the land and sea, the diversity of the nations, the varietie of complexion, and how we were to them antipodes, and many other such like matters, they all stood as amazed with admiration." If this account of the old narrator be correct, Capt. John Smith may claim the honor of having been the first scientific lecturer in the United States. How much of this lecture the savages understood, we are not told.

Smith was carried in triumph to the capi-

tal of the Indian king, and after a time it was decided to kill him. Preparations were made for this object. Two large stones were brought in and placed at the feet of the emperor. Smith was seized by as many of the Indians as could lay hands on him, dragged forward, and his head laid on the stones. A heavy club was then produced, and laid before Powhatan, for whom was reserved the honor of beating out the brains of the victim. The grimly-painted warriors looked on in silence, with sensations of awe at the spectacle. A dreaded and formidable enemy was to be sacrificed for their safety; but in their most savage mood they were not insensible to the emotion of pity for the hard fate of a foe, whose bravery they could not but admire.

And now comes a scene which has never failed to touch the heart, and excite the interest of the reader — and one which has few parallels in history. The fatal club was uplifted; one instant more and the wretched victim had been struck dead, when Pocahontas, the young, amiable and beauteous daughter of the emperor, uttered a scream of terror and agony, which arrested the blow. With dishevelled hair, and eyes streaming with tears, she threw herself upon

the body of Smith, clasped his head in her arms, and by the most imploring looks, directed towards her father, solicited the life of the captive. The royal executioner suspended his blow in amazement, and looked round upon his warriors. Either a respect for the gallant prisoner, or admiration of the noble behavior of his fair friend had moved their hearts. Powhatan read in their looks a sentiment of mercy, and spared the life of the doomed victim. Such is the narrative of the most striking and dramatic incident in the whole history of the North American Indians.

At this time Pocahontas was about thirteen years of age. She continued to be the friend of the English colonists, and was of great service to them in the difficulties and dangers which surrounded them. A young Englishman, named Rolfe, became attached to her, and the young couple were married in April, 1613. Afterwards they went to England, where Pocahontas died. She left several children, and it is said that some of the first families in Virginia have descended from her. The late John Randolph, celebrated for his oratory and his eccentricities, is said to be one of the descendants of Pocahontas.



THE JUNIPER-TREE.

Of this tree there are several varieties. In good soil, it will grow to the height of fifteen feet. It is spoken of in the Bible (1 Kings chap. xix.) as giving shelter to the prophet Elijah.

Tournefort, the celebrated naturalist, mentions five kinds of the juniper, but the number of the species of this tree amounts to fourteen. The berries have been used for medicinal purposes. It is remarkable that

the fruit requires two years in ripening. Thrushes and grouse feed on the berries. The whole plant has a strong, aromatic smell. When the wood is burned, it sends forth a fragrant odor, like incense. The charcoal made from the wood endures longer than any other, insomuch, that live embers are said to be found in the ashes, after being a year covered. In Ps. cxx. 4, there is an allusion made to the intense heat of the juniper coals, as a figure employed to point out the severe punishment to be inflicted upon those who injure others by their false tongue. "What shall be done unto thee, thou false tongue? Sharp arrows of the mighty with coals of juniper."



SIAMESE TWINS.

In the year 1829, Captain Coffin, of the American ship *Sachem*, arrived in the United States, with two youths, born in the kingdom of Siam, and united by a strong gristly ligature at the breast. Their names were Eng and Chang, and they were natives of Maklong, a village on the coast of Siam. They were born in May, 1811, of Chinese parents, who were in humble circumstances. They were engaged in fishing, keeping poultry, and manufacturing cocoa-nut oil, till they left their country. When they arrived, they were five feet two inches in height, well made, and muscular. They have been known to carry a person weighing two hundred and eighty pounds.

The band that united these two persons was a cartilaginous substance, an eighth of an inch thick, and an inch and a half wide.

It was flexible, and permitted the youths to turn in either direction. It was covered with skin, and seemed to be without pulsation. It was very strong, and of so little sensibility, that it might be smartly pulled, without seeming to give uneasiness. When touched in the centre, it was equally felt by both; but at half an inch from the centre, it was felt by only one.

They were agile, could walk or run with swiftess, and could swim well. Their intellectual powers were acute; they played at chess and draughts remarkably well, but never against each other. Their feelings were warm and affectionate, and their conduct amiable and well-regulated. They never entered into conversation with each other, beyond a simple remark made by one to the other, which seemed to be rationally accounted for, by the fact that, their experience being all in common, they had nothing to communicate. The attempt has frequently been made to engage them in separate conversation with different individuals, but always without success, as they are invariably inclined to direct their attention to the same thing at the same time.

In their movements perfect equanimity is observed; the one always concurring with the other, so that they appear as if actuated by a common mind. In their employments and amusements, they have never been known to utter an angry word towards each other. Whatever pleases or displeases one, has the same effect on the other. They feel hunger and thirst at the same time, and the quantity of food taken by them is as nearly alike as possible. Both feel the desire to sleep simultaneously, and they always awake at the same moment. Upon the possibility of separating them with safety, there is some difference of opinion among medical men.

These two youths excited an extraordinary sensation upon their arrival in this country. For three or four years, they were exhibited here and in Europe, and, finally, having obtained a competence, they purchased a farm in North Carolina, and established themselves as planters, where they still reside. They furnish the only instance in which two individuals have been thus united, and their case has probably excited more interest than any other freak of nature that has ever happened.

The most curious part of the story of Eng and Chang is, that on the 13th of April, 1843, they were married to two sisters, Sarah and Adelaide Yeates, of Wilkes county, North Carolina.



PASCAL.

BLAISE PASCAL, "perhaps the most brilliant intellect that ever lighted on this lower world," was born at Clermont, in the province of Auvergne, France, June 19, 1623. He was descended from one of the best families in that province. As soon as he was able to speak, he discovered marks of extraordinary capacity. This he evinced, not only by the general pertinency and acuteness of his replies, but also by the questions that he asked concerning the nature of things, and his reasonings upon them, which were much superior to what is common at his age. His mother having died in 1626, his father, who was an excellent scholar and an able mathematician, and who lived in habits of intimacy with several persons of the greatest learning and science at that time in France, determined to take upon himself the whole charge of his son's education.

One of the instances in which young Pascal displayed his disposition to reason upon everything, is the following. He had been told that God rested from his labors on the seventh day, and hallowed it, and had commanded all mankind to suspend their labor and do no work on the Sabbath. When he was about seven years of age, he was seen,

of a Sabbath morning, measuring some blades of grass. When asked what he was doing, he replied that he was going to see if the grass grew on Sunday, and if God ceased working on the Sabbath, as he had commanded mankind to do.

Before young Pascal had attained his twelfth year, two circumstances occurred, which deserve to be recorded, as they discovered the turn, and evinced the superiority, of his mind. Having remarked, one day, at table, the sound produced by a person accidentally striking an earthen-ware plate with a knife, and that the vibrations were immediately stopped by putting his hand on the plate, he became anxious to investigate the cause of this phenomenon; he employed himself in making a number of experiments on sound, the results of which he committed to writing, so as to form a little treatise on the subject, which was found very correct and ingenious.

The other occurrence was his first acquisition, or, as it might not be improperly termed, his invention of geometry. His father, though very fond of mathematics, had studiously kept from his son all the means of becoming acquainted with this subject. This he did, partly in conformity

to the maxim he had hitherto followed, of keeping his son superior to his task, and partly from an apprehension that a science so engaging, and at the same time so abstracted, and which, on that account, was peculiarly suited to the turn of his son's mind, would probably absorb too much of his attention, and stop the progress of his other studies, if he were at once initiated into it.

But the activity of an inquisitive and penetrating mind is not to be so easily restrained. As, from respect to his father's authority, the youth had so far regarded his prohibition as to pursue this study only in private, and at his hours of recreation, he went on for some time undiscovered. But, one day, while he was employed in this manner, his father accidentally came into the room, unobserved by Pascal, who was wholly intent on the subject of his investigation. His father stood for some time unperceived, and observed with the greatest astonishment, that his son was surrounded with geometrical figures, and was then actually employed in finding out the proportion of the angles formed by a triangle, one side of which is produced; which is the subject of the thirty-second proposition in the First Book of Euclid.

The father at length asked his son what he was doing. The latter, surprised and confused to find his father was there, told him he wanted to find out this and that, mentioning the different parts contained in that theorem. His father then asked how he came to inquire about that. He replied, that he had found out such a thing, naming some of the more simple problems; and thus, in reply to different questions, he showed that he had gone on in his own investigations, totally unassisted, from the most simple definition in geometry, to Euclid's thirty-second proposition. This, it must be remembered, was when Pascal was but twelve years of age.

His subsequent progress perfectly accorded with this extraordinary display of talent. His father now gave him Euclid's Elements to peruse at his hours of recreation. He read them, and understood them without any assistance. His progress was so rapid, that he was soon admitted to the meetings of a society of which his father, Roberval, and some other celebrated mathematicians, were members, and from which, afterwards, originated the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

During Pascal's residence with his father at Rouen, and while he was only in his

nineteenth year, he invented his famous arithmetical machine, by which all numerical calculations, however complex, can be made by the mechanical operation of its different parts, without any arithmetical skill in the person who uses it. He had a patent for this invention in 1649. His studies, however, began to be interrupted when he had reached his eighteenth year, by some symptoms of ill health, which were thought to be the effect of intense application, and which never afterwards entirely quitted him; so that he was sometimes accustomed to say, that from the time he was eighteen, he had never passed a day without pain. But Pascal, though out of health, was still Pascal; ever-active, ever-inquiring, and satisfied only with that for which an adequate reason could be assigned. Having heard of the experiments instituted by Torricelli, to find out the cause of the rise of water in fountains and pumps, and of the mercury in the barometer, he was induced to repeat them, and to make others, to satisfy himself upon the subject.

In 1654, he invented his arithmetical triangle, for the solution of problems respecting the combinations of stakes, in unfinished games of hazard; and long after that, he wrote his Demonstrations of the Problems relating to the Cycloid; besides several pieces on other subjects, in the higher branches of the mathematics, for which his genius was probably most fitted. Pascal, though not rich, was independent in his circumstances; and as his peculiar talents, his former habits, and the state of his health, all called for retirement, he adopted a secluded mode of life. From 1655, he associated only with a few friends of the same religious opinions with himself, and lived for the most part in privacy in the society of Port Royal. At this period, the Catholics being divided into Jesuits and Jansenists, Pascal, being of the latter, published his famous Provincial Letters. These are so distinguished for their admirable wit, their keen argument, and their exquisite beauty of style, as to have even extorted praise from Voltaire and D'Alembert. He also wrote other pieces against the Jesuits, marked with great talent.

Pascal's health, however, continued to decline; and it is probable that his mind suffered in consequence. Though his life had been singularly blameless, still he seemed to be pained with a sense of inward sin. He was accustomed to wear an iron belt around his waist, in which were sharp points, upon which he would strike his

elbows or his arms, when any unholy passion crossed his mind. He continued to practise charity towards all mankind, and severe austerities to himself, until at last he was attacked with sickness, and on the nineteenth of August, 1662, he died. His last words were, "May God never forsake me."

The latter part of his life was wholly spent in religious meditations, though he committed to paper such pious thoughts as occurred to him. These were published after his death, under the title of "Thoughts on Religion and other Subjects." They have been greatly admired for their depth, eloquence, and Christian spirit.



CASPAR HAUSER.

IN the year 1828, a great sensation was created throughout the civilized world, by the story of Caspar Hauser. This, as it appears, was in substance as follows:—

On the twentieth of May, in the year above named, as a citizen of Nuremberg, in Bavaria, was proceeding along one of the streets, he happened to see a young man, in the dress of a peasant, who was standing like one intoxicated, attempting to move forward, yet appearing hardly to have command of his legs. On the approach of the citizen, this stranger held out to him a letter directed to a well-known and respectable military officer, living in Nuremberg.

As the house of this person lay in the direction of the citizen's walk, he took the

youth thither with him. When the servant opened the door, the stranger put the letter into his hand, uttering some unintelligible words. The various questions which were asked as to his name, whence he came, &c., he seemed not to comprehend. He appeared excessively fatigued, staggered, as if exhausted, and pointed to his feet, shedding tears, apparently from pain. As he seemed to be suffering from hunger, a piece of meat was given to him, but scarcely had he tasted it, when he spat it out, and shuddered as if with abhorrence. He manifested the same aversion to beer. He ate some bread, and drank water, with signs of satisfaction.

Meanwhile, all attempts to gain any information from him were fruitless. To every question he answered with the same unintelligible jargon. He seemed to hear, without understanding, and to see, without perceiving. He shed many tears, and his whole language seemed to consist of moans and unintelligible sounds.

The letter to the officer above-mentioned contained no satisfactory information. It stated that the writer was a poor day-laborer, with a family of ten children; that the bearer had been left with him in October, 1812, and he had never since been suffered to leave his house; that he had received a Christian education, been baptized, &c. He was sent to this officer with the request that he might be taken care of till seventeen years old, and then be made a trooper, and placed in the sixth regiment, as his father had been of that corps. This letter was supposed, of course, to be designed to mislead, and no reliance was placed upon it.

The officer, suspecting some imposition, sent the stranger to the police. To all inquiries the latter replied as before, displaying a childish simplicity, and awkward dullness. He was continually whimpering, and pointing to his feet. While he had the size of a young man, his face had the expression of a child. When writing materials were placed before him, he took the pen with alacrity, and wrote *Caspar Hauser*. This so contrasted with his previous signs of ignorance and dullness, as to excite suspicions of imposture, and he was therefore committed to a tower used for the confinement of rogues and vagabonds. In going to this place, he sank down, groaning at every step.

The body of Caspar seemed perfectly formed, but his face bore a decided aspect of vulgarity. When in a state of tranquillity, it was either destitute of expression, or

had a look of brutish indifference. The formation of his face, however, changed in a few months, and rapidly gained in expression and animation. His feet bore no marks of having been confined by shoes, and were finely formed; the soles were soft as the palms of his hands. His gait was a waddling, tottering progress, groping with his hands as he went, and often falling at the slightest impediment. He could not, for a long time, go up and down stairs without assistance. He used his hands with the greatest awkwardness. In all these respects, however, he rapidly improved.

Caspar Hauser soon ceased to be considered either an idiot or an impostor. The mildness, good nature, and obedience he displayed, precluded the idea that he had grown up with the beasts of the forest. Yet he was destitute of words, and seemed to be disgusted with most of the customs and habits of civilized life. All the circumstances combined to create a belief that he had been brought up in a state of complete imprisonment and seclusion, during the previous part of his existence.

He now became an object of general interest, and hundreds of persons came to see him. He could be persuaded to taste no other food than bread and water. Even the smell of most articles of food was sufficient to make him shudder. When he first saw a lighted candle, he appeared greatly delighted, and unsuspectingly put his fingers into the blaze. When a mirror was shown him, he looked behind, to find the image it reflected. Like a child, he greedily reached for every glittering object, and cried when any desired thing was denied him. His whole vocabulary seemed hardly to exceed a dozen words, and that of *ross* (horse) answered for all quadrupeds, such as horses, dogs, and cats. When, at length, a wooden horse was given as a plaything, it seemed to effect a great change in him; his spirits revived, and his lethargy and indifference were dissipated. He would never eat or drink without first offering a portion to his horse.

His powers seemed now to be rapidly developed; he soon quitted his toy, and learned to ride the living horse, with astonishing rapidity. He, however, was greatly oppressed, as he acquired knowledge, at discovering how much inferior he was in knowledge to those around him, and this led him to express the wish that he could go back to the hole in which he had always been confined. From his repeated statements, now that he had learned to speak, it

appeared that he had been, from his earliest recollections, confined in a narrow space, his legs extended forward upon the floor, and his body upright; and here, without light, and without the power of locomotion, he had remained for years. The date or period of his confinement he knew not, for in his dungeon there was no sunrise or sunset to mark the lapse of time. When he awoke from sleep, he found some bread and water at his side; but who ministered to his wants, he knew not; he never saw the face of his attendant, who never spoke to him, except in some unintelligible jargon. In his hole he had two wooden horses, and some ribands, as toys, — and these afforded him his only amusement. One day had passed as another; he had no dreams; time run on, and life ebbed and flowed, with a dull and almost unconscious movement. After a time his keeper gave him a pencil, of which he learned the use; he was then partially taught to walk, and shortly after, was carried from his prison, a letter put into his hand, and he was left, as the beginning of our story finds him, in the streets of Nuremberg.

The journals were now filled with accounts of this mysterious young man. A suspicion was at last started that he was of high birth, and that important motives had led to the singular treatment he had received. He was himself haunted with the fear of assassination, from the idea that the circumstances which led to his incarceration, now that his story was known, might tempt his enemies to put a period to his life, — thus seeking at once the removal of a hated object, and security against detection. His fears were at last partially realized; while he was under the care and protection of Professor Daumer, he was attacked and seriously wounded, by a blow upon the forehead.

After this event, Earl Stanhope, who happened to be in that part of Germany, caused him to be removed to Anspach, where he was placed under the care of an able schoolmaster. Here his fears subsided; but in December, 1833, a stranger, wrapped in a large cloak, accosted him, under the pretence of having an important communication to make, and proposed a meeting. Caspar agreed, and they met in the palace-garden, alone. The stranger drew some papers from beneath his cloak, and while Caspar was examining them, the ruffian stabbed him in the region of the heart. The wound did not prove immediately fatal. He was able to return home, and relate

what had happened. Messengers were sent in pursuit of the assassin, but in vain. Hauser lingered three or four days, — that is, till the seventeenth of December, 1833, when he died. On dissection, it appeared that the knife had pierced to the heart, making an incision in its outer covering, and slightly cutting both the liver and the stomach. A reward of five thousand florins was offered by Lord Stanhope, for the discovery of the assassin, but without effect — nor was the mystery which involved Caspar's story ever fully unravelled.

Such was the tale of this extraordinary individual, as it appeared a few years ago. Since that period, the facts in the case have been carefully sifted, and the result is a settled conviction that Hauser was an impostor; that the story of his confinement was a fabrication; that his pretended ignorance, his stupidity, his childishness, were but skilful acting to enforce his story; and, strange as it may appear, there is no good reason to doubt that the wounds he received, in both instances, were inflicted by himself. Such were the deliberate convictions of Earl Stanhope, and others, who investigated the facts on the spot, and with the best advantages for the discovery of the truth. Caspar's motive for wounding himself, doubtless, was to revive the flagging interest of the public in his behalf, — a source of excitement he had so long enjoyed as to feel unhappy without it. In the latter instance, he doubtless inflicted a severer wound than he intended, and thus put an undesignated period to his existence.

His story presents one of the most successful instances of imposture on record. It appears probable that he was aided in his imposition by the narrative of Fuerbach, one of the judges of Bavaria, who adopted some theory on the subject, which he supported with gross, though perhaps undesignated, misrepresentation. He published an interesting account of Hauser, in which he rather colored and exaggerated the facts, thus making the narrative far more wonderful than the reality would warrant. It was, doubtless, owing to these statements of Fuerbach, that an extraordinary interest in the case was everywhere excited; and it is highly probable that Hauser himself was encouraged to deeper and more extended duplicity, by the aid which the mistaken credulity of the judge afforded him, than at first he had meditated. He probably looked with surprise and wonder at the success of his trick, and marvelled at seeing himself suddenly converted from a poor German

mechanic, as he doubtless was, into a prodigy and a hero, — exciting a sensation throughout the four quarters of the globe.

The whole story affords a good illustration of the folly of permitting the imagination to lead us in the investigation of facts, and the extended impositions that may flow from the want of exact and scrupulous veracity in a magistrate.



DANIEL LAMBERT.

THIS individual was born at Leicester, England, in 1770, and was apprenticed to the business of a die-sinker and engraver. He afterwards succeeded his father as keeper of the prison; and from this period, his size began to increase in a remarkable degree. In this situation he continued for some years, and so exemplary was his conduct, that when his office was taken away, in consequence of some new arrangements, he received an annuity of £50, for life, as a mark of esteem, and the universal satisfaction he had given in the discharge of his duties.

His size increased to such a degree, that he was an object of universal wonder, and was at last persuaded to exhibit himself in London. Here he was visited by crowds of people, and, among the rest, by Count Boruwalski, the Polish dwarf. The contrast between the two must have been striking indeed; for as Lambert was the

largest man ever known, so the count was one of the smallest. The one weighed seven hundred and thirty-nine pounds, and the other probably not over sixty. Here were the two extremes of human stature.

In general, the health of Lambert was good, his sleep sound, his respiration free. His countenance was manly and intelligent; he possessed great information, much ready politeness, and conversed with ease and propriety. It is remarkable that he

was an excellent singer, his voice being a melodious tenor, and his articulation clear and unembarrassed. He took several tours through the principal cities and towns of Great Britain, retaining his health and spirits till within a day of his death, which took place in June, 1809. His measure round the body was nine feet four inches, and a suit of clothes cost him one hundred dollars!



THE LEOPARD.

THIS animal is more slender and graceful than the African panther, yet it has all the savage qualities of the feline race. Its skin is exceedingly beautiful, being of a light fawn color, marked with black spots. Nothing can surpass the ease, grace, and agility of its movements.

Two boors, in southern Africa, in 1822, returning from hunting the hartebeest, fell in with a leopard in a mountain ravine, and immediately gave chase to him. The animal, at first, endeavored to escape, by clambering up a precipice, but being hotly pressed, and slightly wounded by a musket-ball, he turned upon his pursuers, with that frantic ferocity which, on such emergencies, he frequently displays. Springing upon the man who had fired at him, he tore him from his horse to the ground, biting him at the same time very severely on the shoulder, and tearing his face and arms with his claws. The other hunter, seeing the danger of his comrade, sprang from his horse, and attempted to shoot the leopard through the

head; but, whether owing to trepidation, the fear of wounding his friend, or the sudden motions of the animal, he unfortunately missed his aim.

The leopard, abandoning his prostrate enemy, darted with redoubled fury upon this second antagonist; and so fierce and sudden was this onset, that, before the boor could stab him with his hunting-knife, he struck him in the eyes with his claws, and had torn the scalp over his forehead. In this frightful condition, the hunter grappled with the raging beast, and struggling for life, they both rolled together down a steep declivity. All this passed so rapidly, that the other man had scarcely time to recover from the confusion into which his feline foe had thrown him, to seize his gun, and rush forward to aid his comrade, — when he beheld them rolling together down the steep bank, in mortal conflict. In a few moments he was at the bottom with them, but too late to save the life of his friend, who had so gallantly defended him. The leopard

had torn open the jugular vein, and so dreadfully mangled the throat of the unfortunate man, that his death was inevitable ; and his comrade had only the melancholy satisfaction of completing the destruction of the savage beast, which was already much exhausted by several deep wounds in the breast, from the desperate knife of the expiring huntsman.

Mr. Brown gives us the following account. "There are at present in the Tower a pair of these animals, from Asia, confined in the same den. The female is very tame, and gentle in her temper, and will allow herself to be patted and caressed by the keepers, while she licks their hands, and purs. She, however, has one peculiarity, — that she cannot bear many of the appendages which visitors bring with them to the menagerie. She has a particular predilection for the destruction of parasols, umbrellas, muffs, and hats, which she frequently contrives to lay

hold of before the unwary spectator can prevent it, and tears them to pieces in an instant. She has been five years in the Tower, during which time she has seized and destroyed several hundred of these articles, as well as other parts of ladies' dresses. While this creature is in a playful mood, she bounds about her cell with the quickness of thought, touching the four sides of it nearly at one and the same instant. So rapid are her motions, that she can scarcely be followed by the eye ; and she will even skim along the ceiling of her apartment with the same amazing rapidity, evincing great pliability of form and wonderful muscular powers. The male has been about two years in the Tower, and is only beginning to suffer familiarities ; but he seems jealous of the slightest approach. He is larger than the female, the color of his skin more highly toned, and the spotting more intensely black."



THE ASP.

THIS malignant species of reptile is confined to hot countries. It is about a foot in length, and nearly half an inch in thickness. It is oviparous ; and, in a very short time after it bites and injects its venom, death is the consequence. After the wound is inflicted, slumber takes place, then a deep sleep, then death. Galen, the ancient and celebrated physician, says he witnessed the activity of the poison. It was in the case of a criminal in Alexandria, condemned to death, whose sufferings were to be easily and speedily terminated. An asp was ap-

plied to his breast, and after it had crawled there for a short time, he expired.

In Scripture, wicked men are compared to asps, on account of their subtlety, their malignity, and their gradual, but certain, murdering of themselves and others with the cruel venom of sin ; (Rom. iii. 13.) "The poison of asps is under their lips."

It seems that Cleopatra, the celebrated Queen of Egypt, after the death of her lover, and the defeat of her armies, in order to avoid being taken in triumph to Rome, applied an asp to her breast, and thus speedily died.



LUMINOUS PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

BEFORE the creation of light, the world must have been involved in darkness. A state of darkness is the natural condition of the universe without light. We are very apt to think of everything as a matter of course, and we are not apt to reflect that everything has been made, created — by God. Now, let us bear in mind the fact, that darkness was the original state of the universe; then let us reflect upon the stupendous, beautiful and benignant creation of light. How wonderful must have been the first rising of the sun upon this world of ours, before involved in the shades of midnight! How wonderful must have been the first appearance of the thousand stars in the sky — and how wonderful that of the pale, but lovely moon, hung like a bow in the heavens, or bursting in its full splendor upon our world below!

And let us consider a moment what a wonderful element light is. We do not understand all its properties, but we know that it proceeds in a straight direction from its source. Now the sun produces light, and it comes to us with an inconceivable velocity. The distance of the sun is ninety-five millions of miles from us — yet the rays of light reach us in seven minutes and a half; thus showing that the rays fly at the rate of two hundred thousand miles in a second!

Let us consider, for one instant, what a stupendous work it was to make and sustain the sun, which is every instant pouring off a flood of light on all sides, reaching ninety-five millions of miles, and flowing constantly at the rate of two hundred thousand miles a second; and consider, also, that this process has been in operation for at least six thousand years! This is indeed enough to overwhelm us with wonder and admiration; and yet we are only considering one source of light — the sun — while every fixed star in the firmament is another, and presents the same topic of admiration.

We might now pass from this view of the subject, to the uses of light — and remark upon the fact, that by means of it we see things. Color and form — all that constitutes the beauty of the world of vision — is revealed to us by light. The production of light — its manufacture and supply — is a stupendous thing — but yet its conception, its invention, was still more wonderful. There was a time when all was darkness. It was then that God said, "Let there be light, and there was light!" But he had an object in producing light. He intended that his creatures should see by it. How great, then, were his wisdom and goodness in designing it — how wonderful his power in producing it!

The philosophy of light is exceedingly

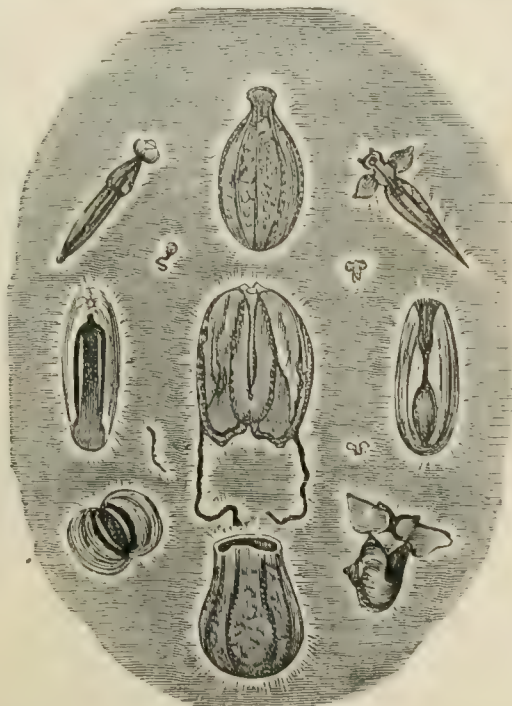
curious, but our intention, at present, is to speak only of some curious particulars in relation to it. In the first place, we remark that there are some plants which throw out light. A gentleman observed, in the shady recesses of some of the rocks of Derbyshire, England, a brilliant gold and green light, which appeared to proceed from a fine network of moss, growing upon the rocks. In the coal mines near Dresden, in Germany, there are certain mosses, which are said to be abundant and luminous. They are described by a visitor as appearing in "wonderful beauty," and he says, "The impression produced by the spectacle, I can never forget. The abundance of these plants was so great, that the roof, and the walls, and the pillars, were entirely covered with them. The beautiful light they cast around was almost dazzling; it resembled faint moonshine, so that two persons, near each other, could readily distinguish their bodies."

The phosphorescence of the sea presents a most remarkable spectacle. Sometimes

the vessel, while ploughing her way through the billows, appears to mark out a furrow of fire. Each stroke of an oar gives rise to sparks of light, sometimes tranquil and pearly, at others brilliant and dazzling. These movable lights, too, are grouped in endless varieties; their thousand luminous points, like little stars, appearing to float on the surface; and their matter forming one vast sheet of light. At such times, the bright waves heave, roll, and break in shining foam; or large sparkling bodies, resembling the forms of fishes, pursue each other, disappearing and bursting forth anew.

Beautiful illuminations of the same kind are frequently seen at a great depth in the clear water, which in the night time becomes jet black. Often, through this dark, yet limpid medium, have voyagers amused themselves, by tracking the routes of large fishes, such as porpoises or sharks, gleaming along in lines of light beneath the abyss, itself invisible with gloom.

As Captain Tuckey passed in his voyage



Luminous marine animals, magnified.

towards Prince's Island, the ship seemed to be sailing on a sea of milk. In order to discover the cause of such an appearance, a bag, having its mouth distended by a hoop, was kept overboard and, by means of it, vast numbers of small animals were collected. Among them, were a great many small sea animals, with innumerable little

creatures attached to them, to which Captain Tuckey principally attributed the whitish color of the water.

Thirteen species of cancer were observed, not above one fourth of an inch long; eight having the shape of crabs, and five that of shrimps. Among these, some luminous creatures were discernible. When one species was examined by the microscope, in candle-light, the luminous property was observed to reside in the brain, which, when the animal was at rest, resembled a most brilliant amethyst, about the size of a large pin's head; and from this there darted, when the animal moved, flashes of a brilliant and silvery light.

Of the number of these little creatures, of some of which a magnified representation is here annexed, some interesting statements are furnished by Captain Scoresby. "During a run of fifty leagues," he says, "the sea was constantly of an olive-green color, remarkably tinted; but, on the afternoon of the 17th of April, it changed to transparent blue. This green appearance of the sea, in these latitudes, was occasioned by myriads of small marine animals. A calculation of the number of these animals, in the space of two miles square, and two hundred and fifty fathoms deep, gave an amount of 23,888,000,000,000 !

"On September 1st, the sea was colored in veins or patches, of a brown color, or sometimes with a yellowish green; and this water, on being examined by the microscope, appeared swarming with minute marine animals. A drop of this water contained twenty-six thousand five hundred animalculæ. Hence, reckoning sixty drops to a drachm, there would be a number in a gallon of water exceeding by one half the amount of the whole population of the globe. It affords an interesting conception of the minuteness of some tribes of animals, when we think of more than twenty-six thousand individuals, living, obtaining subsistence, and moving perfectly at their ease, in a single drop of water!"

A sea is required for a whale to spout in; but a common tumbler affords abundant space for a hundred and fifty millions of these little creatures! The phosphorescent appearances presented by them are not, however, without an important design. It is probable that God, whose knowledge is unbounded, foreseeing that man would learn to traverse the mighty deep, and explore the most distant regions of the globe, has given this brightness to the ocean to lessen

his dangers, and to render his nights less gloomy.

Especially will this seem likely, when it is remembered that it is seen only in the night season, and is vivid in proportion to the darkness. It disappears even before the feeble light of the moon, and increases with the agitation of the sea; so that, during the prevalence of a storm, it generally diminishes the dense gloom, which at such times even the moon and stars cannot penetrate. It casts such a light on the ship and rigging, that the sailors may execute their allotted tasks with certainty, and at all times it points out to the cautious mariner the lurking danger of sunken rocks, shoals and unknown coasts.

It is well known that sea animals, larger than those minute creatures of which we have been speaking, have also the power of emitting light. Pliny tells us, that some of the old Romans, in his time, used to sup in darkened apartments upon the *phylas*, a kind of shell-fish, which gave out sparks of light, and amused the people, while they gratified their appetites. A traveller in a remote land speaks of fishes that played around the boats, each being encircled by a halo of light.

But the land has its luminous animals, as well as the sea. The glow-worm is common in Europe; this is a female beetle, without wings. It emits a light of a sulphur color, so strong that if placed at night on a page of small print, it may be easily read. In Africa there is an insect that emits light from two globes, like lamps, upon its horns.

The fire-fly of South America is very common, and its light is so brilliant as that several put together will enable a person to see to write. The fire-fly of our country, which seems to make the landscape at night sparkle as with a thousand gems, is smaller than that of South America.

In the East Indies, thousands of lantern-flies, sending forth a beautiful illumination, are seen dancing at night amid the banyan trees; and candle-flies, of which we give a cut at the head of this article, have a similar power.

These are a few of the facts connected with the luminous qualities of plants and animals. We do not fully understand the uses of these powers, but we can see that the subject of light is very extensive, and that the study of it leads to a great many curious and wonderful realities.



DESERTS OF AFRICA AND ASIA.

IN Africa, as well as Asia, there are immense tracts of land called deserts, which consist of vast plains composed of loose sand. Large portions of these are utterly destitute of vegetation, and sometimes, in crossing them, the traveller sees not a hill or mountain, or human dwelling, or even a tree or shrub, or blade of grass. All around is a sea of sand, and far as the eye can reach, it is one scene of lifeless solitude and desolation.

These trackless wastes are traversed by caravans, which are companies of travellers usually mounted upon camels. Horses travel in these sands with difficulty. Their feet sink in the soil; they are overcome with heat, and parched with drought. The camel, on the contrary, has a large, spongy foot, which does not sink in the sand; he can bear excessive heat, and by a curious contrivance of nature, is enabled to go without water for five or six days. This valuable creature is called the ship of the desert, because it enables the merchants of Asia and Africa to transport their merchandise over the sea of sand, just as a ship carries goods from one part of the world to another, across the briny ocean. It seems really as if Providence had provided this singular animal on purpose to enable mankind to traverse the great deserts which are spread out upon the eastern continent.

The desert of Sahara stretches nearly from the eastern to the western coast of Africa, a distance of almost three thousand miles. Its width is about eight hundred

miles. Its whole extent is nearly equal to that of the United States. This vast region, though for the most part a scene of absolute desolation, has a few spots where the water collects in pools, around which some vegetation springs up. These places, which bear a delightful contrast to the surrounding sterility, and cheer the eye of the thirsty, weary traveller, are called *oases*. Here the caravans quench their thirst, and repose in the delicious shadow of the trees. The deserts of Arabia are far less extensive, but they are of a similar character to that of Sahara.

It might seem that these inhospitable regions would be deserted by man; but they are not only crossed by companies of travellers who wish to pass from one country to another, but by bands of wandering Arabs, who spend their whole lives upon these deserts. These are, for the most part, desperate robbers. Thus, the lonely desert has its pirates, as well as the lonely sea. These thieves have not only swift camels, but swift horses; and it is amazing to see how rapidly they will speed over the sandy plains. They come upon the traveller almost as suddenly as the hawk that descends from the sky upon its unsuspecting prey, and they disappear almost as suddenly.

It might seem that these inhabitants of the desert would lead a miserable life, and especially that they would often be swallowed up in the terrific sand storms, which sometimes sweep over these wastes. The sand, being loose and dry, is borne upward

by the whirling tempest, and is seen driving over the plain, like a terrific thunder-cloud. The experienced traveller sees the coming danger, and prepares himself for it. He throws himself upon the ground, and covers his face so as not to be choked with the dust. The horses and camels, guided by instinct, also put their noses to the earth to prevent being suffocated. If the storm is slight, the party escapes; but sometimes, such immense waves of sand are drifted upon the wind, as to bury the traveller so deeply beneath it, as to make it his winding-sheet forever. Sometimes whole caravans, with their horses and camels, have been in this manner overwhelmed — thus

making the waves of the desert as fatal as the waves of the sea.

Yet, despite the terrors of the desert, the Arabs are a lively and cheerful race. On their march, they stop at night; and in their tents, spread beneath the starry canopy, the laugh, the jest and the song go round. There are among them professed story-tellers, who delight the listeners with fanciful tales of enchantment, adventure, and love, or perhaps they repeat, in an animated manner, some fine specimens of Arabic poetry. Thus it is, that mankind, occupying the gloomiest parts of the earth, have amusements. As the steel is made to yield its spark, so the Arab finds pleasure in the desert.



THE PRONG-HORNED ANTELOPE.

THE Antelope has ever been regarded as one of the most beautiful of animals. It resembles the common deer, but it is smaller and more elegant. There are several varieties in Asia and Africa, and one in the western and northern parts of North America. This bears the name of the *Prong-horned Antelope*, on account of the shape of the horns.

It is sometimes a solitary animal, sometimes assembled in herds of ten or twelve. Its sight and sense of smell are acute, and its speed is greater than that of any other inhabitant of the plains, although, when there is a little snow on the ground, it may, with some little management, be run down by a high-bred horse. The Indian hunters have no difficulty in bringing an antelope

within gun-shot by various stratagems, such as lying down on their backs, and kicking their heels in the air, holding up a white rag, clothing themselves in a white shirt, and showing themselves only at intervals. By these and similar manœuvres, the curiosity of a herd of antelopes is so much roused, that they wheel round the object of their attention, and at length approach near enough to enable the hunter to make sure of his mark. From this disposition of the prong-horned antelopes, they are more easily killed than any of the deer of the district they inhabit. They are however objects of little interest to the Indians, who eat their flesh only when the bison, moose, or wapiti are not to be procured; and their skins are of no value as an article of trade.

The most northerly range of the prong-horned antelope is latitude 53° on the banks of the north branch of the Saskatchewan. Some of them remain the whole year on the south branch of that river, but they are merely summer visitors to the north branch. They also abound on the plains of the Columbia to the west of the Rocky Mountains, and as far south as California. They frequent open prairies and low hills, interspersed with clumps of wood, but are not met with in the continuously-wooded coun-

try. They feed on the grass of the plains during the summer, but migrate towards the mountains at the commencement of winter, and subsist there during that season on leaves and shrubs.

This animal has a graceful form, and slender head, with large eyes, and long and delicate limbs. The horns are black, and rise directly upwards. The upper parts of the body are of a clear yellowish brown color, the under parts are pure white.



COVENT-GARDEN FLOWER-MARKET.

THERE is no place more curious than the market of a great city; and of all markets, one of the most wonderful is that of Covent Garden, London. It is a vast square building, with a court in the centre, where the articles are chiefly sold.

The flower-market is but one small portion of this head-quarters of fish, flesh, and fowl. But in the season of flowers, it presents a spectacle that may well excite admiration. The number of cut flowers, as well as those in pots, surpasses computation.

The brilliancy and perfume of the place make it seem like the "garden of Gul in her bloom." Here is the camellia for the hair of the beauty; the half-crown rose for the button-hole of the beau; and the bouquet for the belt or gloved hand of the favorite.

It is really delightful, after wandering about in the smoke and mud of London, to come to this charmed spot, and think of the country where these lovely things are all at home.



THE LEMING.

THE Leming, which is a native of Scandinavia, is somewhat larger than a dormouse, having a short, bushy tail. Its fore legs are short, and its hind ones are long, which give it a degree of swiftness. It is particularly remarkable for its migrations, in which many millions remove from their native mountains and descend like a torrent upon the plains. They move, for the most part, in a square, marching forward by night and lying still by day. Thus, like an animated torrent, they are often seen more than a mile broad, covering the ground, and that so thick, that the hindmost touches the leader.

It is in vain that the poor inhabitant resists or attempts to stop their progress; they still keep moving forward; and though thousands are destroyed, myriads are seen to succeed, and make their destruction impracticable. They generally move in lines, which are about three feet from each other, and exactly parallel. Their march is always directed from the north-west to the south-east, and regularly conducted from the beginning. Wherever their motions are turned, nothing can stop them; they go directly forward, impelled by some strange power; and from the time they first set out they never once think of retreating. If a lake or a river happens to intercept their progress, they all together take to the water and swim over it; a fire, a deep well, or a torrent, does not turn them out of their direction; they boldly plunge into the flames, or leap down the well, where they are sometimes seen climbing up on the other side.

If they are interrupted by a boat across a river, while they are swimming, they never attempt to swim round it, but mount directly up its sides, and the boatmen, who know how vain resistance in such a case may be, calmly suffer the living torrent to pass on, which it does without further damage. If they meet with a stack of hay or corn that interrupts their passage, instead of going over it, they gnaw their way through. It is happy, however, for mankind, that they eat nothing that is prepared for human subsistence; they never enter a house to destroy the provisions, but are contented with eating every root and vegetable that they meet. If they happen to pass through a meadow, they destroy it in a very short time, and give it the appearance of being burnt up and strewed with ashes.

An enemy so numerous and destructive would quickly render the countries where they appear, utterly uninhabitable, did it not fortunately happen that the same rapacity that animates them to destroy the labor of mankind, at last impels them to destroy and devour each other. After committing incredible devastation, they are at last seen to separate into two armies, opposed with deadly hatred, and they continue their engagements till one party overcomes the other. From that time they utterly disappear; some suppose that they rush headlong into the sea; others, that they kill themselves; but the most probable opinion is, that having devoured the vegetable productions of the country, they fall to devouring one another. However this may be, they

are found dead by thousands, and their carcasses have been known to infect the air for several miles around, so as to produce very malignant disorders.

The Swedes and Norwegians, who live by husbandry, consider an invasion from these vermin as a terrible visitation; but it is very different with respect to the Lap-

landers, who lead a vagrant life like the beings themselves. They are never so happy as when an army of these creatures come down amongst them, for then they have a feast upon their flesh, which they esteem very good eating, although rejected both by cats and dogs.



THE INDIAN DANDY.

It must not be supposed that the love of fine dress is confined to city dandies and dandisettes. By no means; for travellers tell us that among the tribes that inhabit the far west, the young Indian men have a great fancy for dressing themselves up in a fanciful way.

The picture at the head of this article represents a young man whose name was Prairie Wolf, and it is a very good likeness.

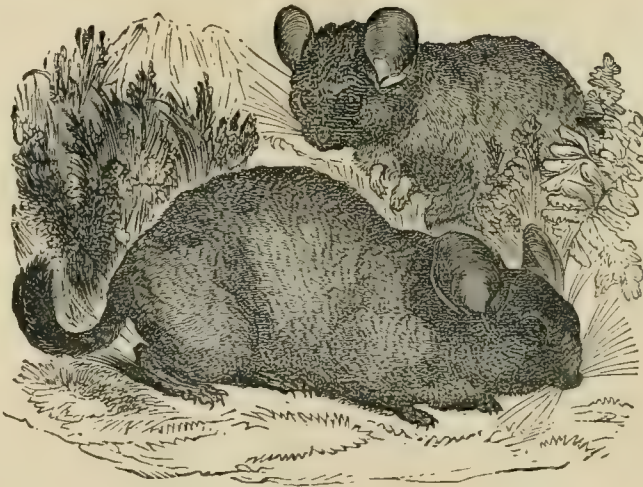
He has upon his head the horns of a buffalo which he slew in the chase; and beneath is the hair of the buffalo's pate, with a circular and notched piece of leather, forming together a sort of crown. He has beads around his neck, with a necklace of bears' claws. He has, also, a bracelet on his left arm. His robe is made of ornamented deer skins; — his kilt is of leather, fringed with wampum.

This dress is very modest for a young Indian. Very often the young fellows, when they wish to appear lovely in the eyes of the girls, paint themselves red, blue and green: they decorate their heads with feathers, and, altogether, make a most extraordinary display. They then mount a horse, and ride swiftly around the village, coming often before the women to excite their admiration.

The grave old warriors and hunters, who have done great deeds in their day, laugh at such things, and ridicule them as very contemptible. Indeed, when an Indian has performed some distinguished feat in battle,

or the chase, he usually ceases to be a dandy in dress.

One thing is curious among the Indians, and that is, that this love of dress is chiefly confined to the men. The women, indeed, decorate themselves with a few beads and other ornaments; but real dandyism belongs wholly to the other sex. The females are usually modest in their attire, and seldom seek to excite admiration by their dress. It seems to be among the Indians as among the turkeys—the cocks are the only ones that strut about, showing off their fine feathers!



THE CHINCHILLA.

THIS pretty little animal is six inches long, with small rounded ears, large black eyes, and a tail of moderate length. It is a species of field rat, found in the northern parts of Chili, in South America. It lives in burrows, and feeds upon the roots of bulbous plants. Its fur is in great esteem, being very fine and of an ash-gray color. It is very docile in temper, and extremely timid. If placed in the bosom, it remains as still and quiet as if it were in its own nest. It is very agile, and can leap to the height of several feet, its hind legs being longer than the fore legs. It usually sits upon its haunches, and is able to raise itself up and stand upon its hinder feet. It feeds in a

sitting posture, grasping its food in its fore paws, in the same manner as the squirrel.

There is a variety of the chinchilla in Peru, but it is larger in size, and the fur is not so fine as that of the Chilian animal. It is equally good-tempered, and mild in its disposition, and, when domesticated, is very tame and playful.

Great numbers of these animals are caught, by boys with dogs, and sold to traders, who take them to Santiago. The extensive use of the fur has occasioned great destruction of them. The ancient Peruvians made coverlets for beds of this fur.

A Spanish writer, in 1591, thus mentions this animal: "The chinchilly is a kind of

small beast, like squirrels; they have a wonderful smooth and soft skin, which the people wear as a healthful thing to cover those parts which have need of a moderate heat."

A seaman, in 1593, also describes them: "In Peru, they have little beastes, like unto a squirrel, but that hee is gray; his skinne

is the most delicate, soft, and curious furre that I have seene, and of much estimation, as is reason; few of them go into Spain, because difficult to be come by, for that the princes and nobles laie waite for them. They call this beast Chinchilla, and of them they have great abundance."

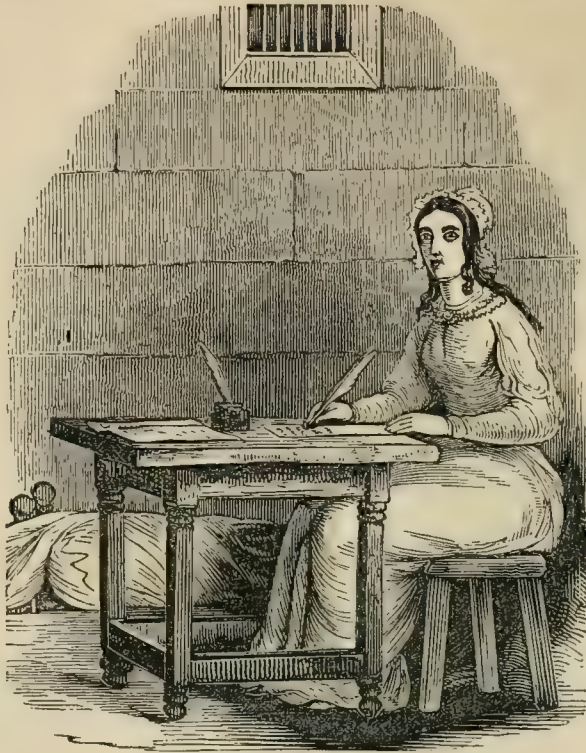


THE OCELOT.

THIS handsome member of the cat family is found in the tropical parts of America. Nearly equal in size to the lynx, but shorter in its proportions and more graceful in its form, it holds, as it were, a middle station between the leopard and the domestic cat. Its body, when full grown, is nearly three feet in length, and its tail rather more than one; while its medium height may be reckoned at about eighteen inches. The ground color of its fur is gray, mingled with a slight tinge of fawn, and on this it is elegantly marked with numerous longitudinal bands, the dorsal one being continuous and entirely black, and the lateral, to the number of six or seven on each side, consisting for the most part of a series of elongated spots with black margins, sometimes completely distinct, and sometimes running together. The ears are short and rounded, and externally margined with black, surrounding a large central whitish spot. The under parts of the body are whitish, spotted with black,

and the tail, which is of the same ground color with the body, is also covered with blackish spots.

As the ocelot is an active climber, it follows the birds even to their nests. It is easily tamed, but seldom loses all traces of its natural ferocity. D'Azara, however, speaks of one which was so completely domiciliated as to be left at perfect liberty; it was strongly attached to its master, and never attempted to make its escape. A specimen in the Tower of London, a male, was perfectly good-tempered, exceedingly fond of play, and had, in fact, much of the character and manners of the domestic cat. Its food consisted principally of rabbits and of birds, the latter of which it plucked with the greatest dexterity, and always commenced its meal with their heads, of which it appeared to be particularly fond. It did not eat with the same ravenous avidity which characterizes nearly all the animals of its tribe.



CHARLOTTE CORDAY.

THERE are few incidents of the French Revolution more intensely interesting than those which relate to Charlotte Corday. Paris was the scene of the most violent commotions that have ever been witnessed in civilized society. All France was agitated with the strife of parties that wrestled with each other in the capital. The hearts of men seemed to be filled with frenzy. The common bonds of society were rent asunder; new and strange ideas took possession of the minds of the people. In the midst of this excitement, and wrought up, by the fever of the time, to a design beyond her sex, Charlotte Corday appeared upon the theatre of action, and arrested even the attention of the maddened populace of Paris, by her heroic self-devotion.

The triumph of the Jacobins over the rival Girondists, in May, 1793, rendered their power uncontrollable. Marat was treated with more honor and respect than any individual since the revolution, and exerted a sway in the Convention and the clubs more absolute than was ever before known in bodies styled deliberative. In fact, they submitted to all his whims and caprices, and seemed to derive to themselves honor

from the submission. His extravagances were more bearable from the obvious certainty that the wretch was hastening to the grave, and that nothing could save him. His constitution was never good, and at this time he was preyed upon by a leprous complaint, which, adding its ravages to his natural deformity, and habitual want of personal cleanliness, rendered him a most disgusting object. But this man of blood was not destined to end his days by disease.

Of the Girondists, some were arrested and executed, others succeeded in escaping, and were outlawed. Of this latter class a number, — among them Barbaroux, he whose beauty of person and energy of mind could move the heart of the philosophic Madame Roland, — had taken refuge at Caen. They held daily meetings at the town-hall, and thither frequently came Charlotte Corday, a young lady of stately figure, with an open and intelligent countenance, about twenty-five years of age. Her deportment was modest; she was of studious and meditative habits, and was a republican before the revolution. In her visits to the town-hall, she was always attended by a servant, and her inquiry was for Barbaroux,

with whom she had long been acquainted, and with whom she pretended to have business. She now heard much of the atrocities of the Terrorists, of the ferocity of Marat, who held in his hands the destiny of her country, and what was as much to her, the fate of Barbaroux. Patriotism and love both prompted her to the commission of an act, by which, at the sacrifice of her own life, she should be the savior both of her country and her friend.

A nun of Caen was desirous to obtain some family papers, which were in the office of the Minister of the Interior at Paris. Charlotte offered to proceed thither to procure them, and was furnished by Barbaroux with a letter of introduction to his friend Dupenet, who would aid her in procuring them. On the ninth of July, we find her seated in the diligence, and the details of her journey are thus given in a letter to Barbaroux.

"You requested an account of my journey, and I will not excuse you from the slightest anecdotes. I travelled with good mountaineers, whom I suffered to talk as much as they pleased, and their discourse, which was as absurd as their persons were disagreeable, contributed not a little to lull me to sleep. I was not perfectly awake till I arrived at Paris. One of my fellow-travellers, who is undoubtedly an admirer of sleepy women, took me for the daughter of one of his old friends, supposed me possessed of a fortune, which I have not, gave me a name which I never heard, and, in conclusion, offered me his hand and fortune. When I was tired of his conversation, I said, 'We are admirable comedians; what a pity that, with such talents, we have no spectators! I will go and fetch our fellow-travellers, that they may have their share of the amusement!' I left him in a very ill-humor;—all night he sung plaintive songs, excellent procreatives of sleep. At length I parted with him at Paris, refusing to give him my address, or that of my father, of whom he wished to ask me in marriage."

She delivered her letter to Dupenet, and the ostensible object of her journey was accomplished. But she said nothing of returning. She visited the Convention. Marat was not there; he was confined to his house by sickness. She proceeded thither, but was refused admittance. She returned to her inn, and despatched a note, telling him that she was from Caen, the seat of rebellion; that she desired earnestly to see him, and would put it in his power to do France a great service. She received

no answer. She wrote another note still more pressing, and carried it herself to the door. He was just leaving his bath; but her business was urgent, and she was admitted to his presence. "I am from Caen," said she, "and wished to speak with you." "Be seated, my child. What are the traitors doing at Caen?—What deputies are at Caen?" He took out his tablets, and wrote down the names as Charlotte gave them,—Louvet, Petion, Barbaroux. "I will have them all guillotined at Paris, within a fortnight." "Then you shall precede them," exclaimed Charlotte, and plunged a dagger through his heart! She was at once seized and committed to prison. We will again quote from her letter to Barbaroux.

"I expected to have been instantly put to death, but some men, truly courageous, preserved me from the excusable rage of those I had rendered unhappy. As I really preserved my presence of mind, I felt hurt at the exclamations of some women;—but those who save their country think nothing of the cost. May peace be established as soon as I wish it! For these two days I have enjoyed a delicious state of mental repose. The happiness of my country constitutes mine; there is no act of self-devotion which does not over-pay in pleasure the pain of resolving to adopt it. I never hated but one single being, and I have demonstrated how violent that hatred was. But there are thousands whom I love with more warmth than I hated him. A lively imagination and a feeling heart promise but a stormy life; I beg those who may regret my fate to think of this, and they will rejoice at seeing me enjoy repose in the Elysian fields, with Brutus and a few of the ancients. As for the moderns, there are few real patriots, who know how to die for their country! they are almost all selfish. What a people to form a republic!

"I am exceedingly well accommodated in my prison; the jailers are the best kind of people in the world; to keep away *ennui* they have placed soldiers in my room! I have no objection to this by day, but by night it is not so pleasant. I have complained of the indecency, but no one has thought fit to attend to my remonstrance. * * My trial comes on to-morrow, at eight; probably, at noon, according to the Roman phrase, *I shall have lived*. I cannot say how I shall encounter my last moments; I have no need to affect insensibility, for I never yet knew the fear of death, and never loved life, but in proportion to its possible utility."

On the seventeenth of July she was put on trial, and avowed the fact and all the circumstances, alleging, as justification, that she considered Marat a criminal already convicted by public opinion, and that she had a right to put him to death. She added, that she did not expect to have been brought to trial, but to have been delivered up to the rage of the populace, torn to pieces, and that her head, borne on a pike before the corpse of Marat, would have served as a rallying point to Frenchmen, if any still existed worthy of the name.

She was led from the place of trial to that of execution. On the way she displayed a firmness and tranquillity which even awed into silence the *poissardes*, those

furies of the guillotine, who in general pursued the victim to death, with execrations and reproaches. She submitted to her fate with the same composure that had marked all her previous conduct.

The circumstances which attended this extraordinary action, the privacy with which it was concerted, the resolution with which it was executed, the openness of confession, the contempt of punishment, and, above all, the execrable character of the monster who was the subject of it, have taken off so much of the horror generally felt at an act of assassination, that the name of Charlotte Corday is generally pronounced with respect, and a great degree of admiration.



CHINESE DANDY.

THE following description of a Chinese exquisite, is from a work on China, by P. Dobel, formerly Russian consul to China, and a resident in that country for seven years:—

“His dress is composed of crapes and silks, of great price; his feet are covered with high-heeled boots, of the most beautiful Nankin satin; and his legs are encased in gaiters, richly embroidered, and reaching to the knee. Add to this an acorn-shaped cap, of the latest taste, an elegant pipe, richly ornamented, in which burns the purest tobacco of the Fokien, an English watch, a tooth-pick, suspended to a button by a string of pearls, a Nankin fan, exhaling the perfume of the *tcholané*, (a Chinese flower,) and you will have an exact idea of a fashionable Chinese.

“The Chinese dandy, like dandies of all times and all countries, is seriously occupied with trifles. He belongs either to the Quail Club, or the Cricket Club. Like the ancient Romans, the Chinese train quails, quarrelsome birds, intrepid duellists, whose combats form the subjects of senseless wagers. In imitation of the rich, the poorer Chinese place at the bottom of an earthen basin two field-cricket. These insects they excite and provoke, until they grow angry, attack each other, and the narrow field of battle is soon strewn with their claws, antennæ, and corselets! There is between the Chinese and the old Romans as great a difference as there is between the combats of the crickets and the terrible combats of the gladiators.”



JOHN HOWARD.

THIS eminent and laborious philanthropist was born in 1727. His father was a London tradesman, who, dying early, left him in possession of a handsome fortune. Having always been fond of travelling, he conceived a desire to visit Lisbon, immediately after the great earthquake. He accordingly embarked, but was captured by a French privateer. To this accident the world is probably indebted for the exertions made afterwards by Howard for the relief of prisoners. The sufferings which he endured himself, and witnessed in his fellow-captives, made an ineffaceable impression upon his mind. This was strengthened by his being made sheriff of Bedfordshire, when he had charge of all the prisons in the county. Shocked by the miseries and abuses which he found prevailing in these abodes of crime and misfortune, he set himself diligently to work to inquire into the nature of the evil, and, if possible, to find a remedy.

During the year 1773, he visited most of the county gaols in England, and having obtained information on their management, he laid the result of his inquiries before the House of Commons. In 1774, two acts

were passed; one for relieving acquitted prisoners from the payment of fees, the other for preserving the health of the prisoners. Howard, being once actively engaged, became more and more devoted to his benevolent pursuits. He travelled repeatedly over Great Britain, sometimes even extending his journeys to the continent, visiting the most noisome places, and relieving the wants of the most wretched objects.

In 1777, he published a quarto volume, containing details of prisons in various places, and a mass of information really astonishing, when we consider that it was obtained at the constant hazard of his life from infection, and by untiring and unassisted labor. The importance, both in prisons and hospitals, of preventing the spread of infectious diseases, produced in Mr. Howard the desire to witness the success of the Lazaretto system in the south of Europe, more especially as a safeguard against the plague. Danger or disgust never turned him from his path, and on this occasion he went without a servant, not thinking it right, for convenience' sake, to expose another person to such a risk.

In 1785, he travelled through France, Italy, and thence to Smyrna, where the plague was raging, in order that he might undergo the quarantine at Venice, to which place he sailed. In 1787, this devoted man returned home and published the result of his foreign travels. Two years after, he renewed his travels on the continent, intending to go to Turkey. He had, however, proceeded no further than the Crimea, when a rapid illness, which he believed to be an infectious fever, caught in prescribing for a lady, put an end to his life, January 20, 1790. He was buried at Cherson, and

the utmost respect was paid to his memory by the Russian government.

Mr. Howard's character was pure and simple; without great talents, but accomplishing much by devoting his whole energies to one good object. He was abstemious in his habits, and capable of going through great fatigue, spending freely both his fortune and constitution in the cause to which his life was devoted. He was twice married, and lived at Cardington, near Bedford. He had one son, who unfortunately became insane.



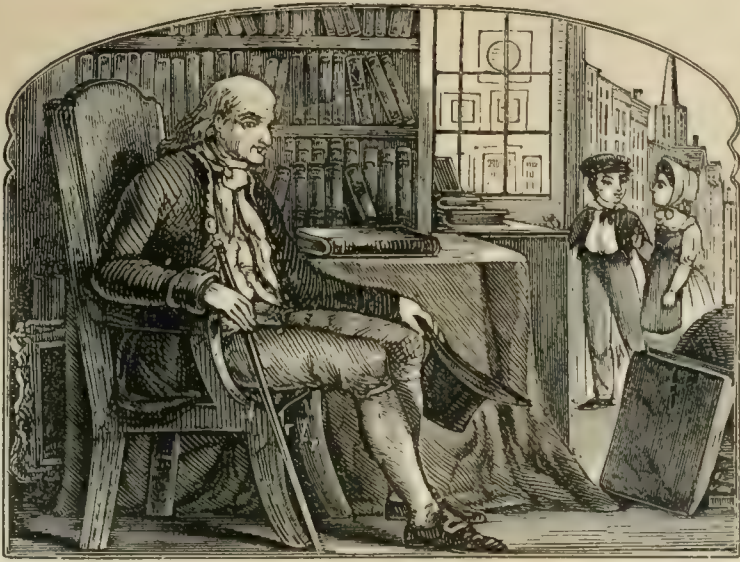
THE DESMAN.

THERE are three kinds of muskrat—the *desman*, marked by a long snout; the *ondatra*, or common muskrat of our country, and the *pilori*, of the West Indies. The desman resembles the common muskrat, and is found both in Russia and Sweden. It is about the size of the hedgehog, the body being eight or nine inches long. Its coat is like that of the beaver, and is composed of hair, intermixed with soft, clear, and delicate fur. The color is brown above, and silvery beneath. The tail, which is seven inches long, is one of the most extraordinary mechanical instruments in the whole animal kingdom. It is composed of three parts, each of which has a motion peculiar to itself.

The desman chooses the margin of such places as are convenient for the burrows which it digs under water. These are sometimes seven yards in length, and are used as hiding-places. The water freezes

over these entrances, and numbers of the animals are suffocated every winter. If there are any cracks or fissures in the ice, they crowd to them, eagerly thrusting their noses up to get the air.

The desman preys at the bottom of the water, and dabbles with its nose in the mud, in search of the small insects which inhabit it. Its senses of touch and smell are very acute; this is rendered necessary from the fact that the animals upon which it preys are silent and invisible. Although nearly blind, it is not a nocturnal animal, but sleeps during the night, at which time it keeps its nose constantly moving, in order, it is supposed, to retain the organs in a proper state for work. Water is indispensable to its existence, and after having remained in a small quantity for any time, it is rendered very offensive, from a strong musky odor, from which it derives its common name of *muskrat*.



AMUSING ANECDOTES.

THE CONJUGATING DUTCHMAN. — Two English gentlemen once stepped into a coffee-house in Paris, where they observed a tall odd-looking man, who appeared not to be a native, sitting at one of the tables, and looking around him with the most stone-like gravity of countenance upon every object. Soon after the Englishmen entered, one of them told the other that a celebrated dwarf had arrived in Paris. At this the grave-looking person above mentioned opened his mouth and spake: — "I arrive, thou arrivest, he arrives, we arrive, you arrive, they arrive."

The Englishman, whose remark seemed to have suggested this mysterious speech, stepped up to the stranger, and asked, "Did you mean to speak to me, sir?" — "I speak, you speak, they speak." — "How is this?" said the Englishman; "do you mean to insult me?" The other replied, "I insult, thou insultest, he insults, we insult, you insult, they insult." "This is too much," said the Englishman; "I will have satisfaction: if you have any spirit with your rudeness, come along with me." To this defiance the imperturbable stranger replied, "I come, thou comest, he comes, we come, you come, they come." And hereupon he rose with great coolness, and followed the challenger.

In those days, when every gentleman wore a sword, duels were quickly despatched. They went into a neighboring alley; and

the Englishman, unsheathing his weapon, said to his antagonist, "Now, sir, you must fight me." "I fight," replied the other, drawing his sword, "thou fightest, he fights, we fight" — here he made a thrust — "you fight, they fight" — and here he disarmed his adversary. "Well," said the Englishman, "you have the best of it, and I hope you are satisfied." "I am satisfied," said the original, sheathing his sword, "thou art satisfied, he is satisfied, we are satisfied, you are satisfied, they are satisfied." "I am glad that every one is satisfied," said the Englishman, "but pray leave off quizzing me in this strange manner, and tell me what is your object, if you have any, in doing so."

The grave gentleman now, for the first time, became intelligible. "I am a Dutchman," said he, "and am learning your language. I find it very difficult to remember the peculiarities of the verbs, and my tutor has advised me, in order to fix them in my mind, to conjugate every English verb that I hear spoken. This I have made it a rule to do, and don't like to have my plans broken in upon while they are in operation, or I should have told you this before." The Englishmen laughed heartily at this explanation, and invited the conjugating Dutchman to dine with them. "I will dine," said he, "thou wilt dine, he will dine, we will dine, they will dine — we will all dine together." This they accordingly did; and

it was difficult to say whether the Dutchman ate or conjugated with most perseverance.

THE DUKE OF NORFOLK.—When the Royal Hotel at Birmingham was kept by Mr. Styles, a gentleman, who occupied during his stay in the town a suite of apartments in the house, sent for his host, and requested him to take him to some warehouse where he might purchase a few wire-fenders. Mr. Styles accompanied him to the shop of Mr. Busby, wire-drawer in that town, who, from the plain dress and manners of the stranger, took him for a homely farmer of humble circumstances. Some fenders were shown, at a price which appeared to Mr. Busby suitable for such a customer. He, however, inquired for others of a finer make, which were accordingly produced; these, too, failed to please, and an article of the very best quality was inquired for.

"I will tell thee what," said Busby, "old chap! thou'lt excuse me, but the price of even these will dip pretty deep into thy pocket." "Well, Mr. Wiseman," said the purchaser, "I'll endeavor to find money to pay for them, and I want the very best you manufacture." They were shown and accepted. "But," said the vender, "I must either have security, old gentleman, or the money, before they leave my shop." "Send them, when packed up," said the stranger, "to Mr. Styles', and they will be paid for on delivery." This was agreed upon, and Busby, turning familiarly to the stranger, said, "Now, old chap, a glass of good ale would be no bad thing—wilt have a glass?" "With all my heart, sir," was the reply.

Busby led the way to the kitchen, which he thought the most suitable apartment for the humble guest, and they there discussed the contents of a flowing can of home-brewed. After some chat, the wire-worker said, "I say, old chap! thou knowest something about pigs, dost not? won't come and see my little runts?" Without waiting for a reply, he conducted the stranger to his yard, where they saw and admired the pigs, and other *et ceteras* of domestic economy. Mr. Busby and the stranger then parted.

At the appointed time Busby appeared at the bar of the Royal Hotel with the fenders. "Well, Styles!" was his salute, "where is the old farmer chap?"—"Show Mr. Busby up," said the innkeeper. Mr. Busby was somewhat startled on being ushered up the great stair-case; at the top of which he was encountered by two servants in splendid

liveries. "This room, sir," said one of them, as he opened the door, and hurried in the bewildered man of wire—introducing him as "Mr. Busby, your grace!"

Hearing the words "your grace," and finding himself in a rich apartment occupied by the "old chap" himself, with a full sense of the familiarity he had used to the great unknown, he was about to leave the room in confusion; but his grace rose from his chair, saluted him with cordiality, forced him to take a seat on the opposite side of the fire, produced a bottle of excellent wine, and filling him a glass, said, "Come, Mr. Busby, I admire your caution and your frankness; and as I drank ale with you in the morning, you must now drink wine with me."

The kindness of his grace's manner, and the generosity of the liquor, soon dispelled the bashfulness of the wire-drawer; and it was not till they had finished the second bottle that Mr. Busby, after receiving his money for the fenders, rose and took his leave, highly gratified by his interview with the jolly Duke of Norfolk.

A CHILD'S ANSWER.—A celebrated tutor in Paris was in the habit of relating to his pupils, as they stood in a half circle before him, anecdotes of illustrious men, and obtaining their opinions respecting them, rewarding those who answered well with prizes. On one of these occasions, he mentioned an anecdote of Marshal Turenne.

On a fine summer's day, while the Marshal was leaning out of his window, his valet entered the room, and approaching his master on tiptoe, gave him a violent blow with his hand. The Marshal, turning suddenly round, beheld the valet on his knees, imploring his forgiveness, saying that he thought it had been George, his fellow-servant. The question was then put to each of the scholars, "What would you have done to the servant, had you been in the Marshal's situation?"

A little French boy, who stood first, said, "I would have run him through with my sword." He then asked a little English girl of about eight years old, "Well, my dear, and what would you have done on this occasion, supposing you had been Marshal Turenne?" She replied, "I should have said, 'Suppose it *had been* George, *why* should you strike so hard?'" The simplicity and sweetness of this reply excited smiles of approbation from the whole school, and the master awarded her the prize.

BENEVOLENT SINGER.—The principal singer of the great theatre of Lyons, in France, one day observed a poor woman begging in the street. Her decent and respectable appearance, in the midst of extreme poverty, interested the kind-hearted vocalist. He desired the poor woman to follow him to the Place Bellcour, where, placing himself in a corner with his back to the wall, his face covered with a handkerchief, and his hat at his feet, he began to sing his most favorite opera airs. The beauty of his voice drew a crowd round him, the idea of some mystery stimulated the generosity of the bystanders, and five franc pieces fell in showers into his hat.

When the singer, who had thus, in the goodness of his heart, transformed himself into a street minstrel, thought he had got enough, he took up his hat, and emptied its contents into the apron of the poor woman, who stood motionless with amazement and happiness. He then disappeared among the crowd. His talent, however, betrayed him, although his face was concealed; the story spread, and the next evening, when he appeared on the stage, shouts of applause from all parts of the house proved that a good action is never thrown away.

TOO LATE.—A country servant was sent one day by his mistress to a friend's about two miles distance, with her compliments, to inquire after the health of the lady of the house and her infant son. Having a great propensity to liquor, he could not pass the public house without taking a glass of brandy. When a drunkard loses his senses, he is sure to lose his time. The first he may recover, but never the last. When he came to himself, he bethought him of his errand, but was totally unconscious of the time lost, and did not think of inquiring.

To his neighbor's gate he at last found the way. He knocked, he beat, he rang, he hallooed; for he began to be sure that he was late, and he wanted to return home.

The inmates of the house were now in great confusion; it being two o'clock in the morning! "Thieves! fire!" was the general cry. Some ran about half clad—some looked out of the window—dogs barked, and women screamed. The master took his blunderbuss, opened the window, and called out stoutly, "Who's there? who's there?" Trinculo answered, but not very intelligibly.

At last, the master of the house dresses, unbolts and unbars his doors, and with one

or two servants behind, boldly walks down the long path to the gate. "What's the matter?" said he, "who are you?" Trinculo stammered out, "My master and mistress' compliments, and be glad to know how Mrs. — and the baby is."

CANINE PRIDE.—A gentleman, a good shot, lent a favorite pointer to a friend, who had not much to accuse himself of in the slaughter of partridges—however much he might frighten them. After ineffectually firing at some birds which the pointer had found for him, the dog turned away in apparent disgust, went home, and never could be persuaded to accompany the same person afterwards!

THE DEAF MOTHER.—"I say, Pat, why are you writing in such a large hand?" "Arrah, honey, and isn't it to my poor mother, who is very deaf, that I'm writing a loud letter?"

READING.—Reading sometimes produces whimsical coincidences. Joe Miller records the story of a clergyman, who, reading to his congregation a chapter in Genesis, found the last sentence in the page to be, "And the Lord gave unto Adam a wife, and she was"—on turning over two leaves together, he continued in an audible voice—"pitched *within* and *without*." (He had unhappily got into the description of *Noah's Ark*.)

WITTY THIEF.—A robber, who was seized in the shop of a tobacconist, by way of excusing himself exclaimed, that he had never heard of a law which forbade a man to *take snuff*.

CURIOUS EXCISE ENTRY.—Alexander Gun, an excise officer, in Scotland, being dismissed from his employment, for misconduct—an entry was made in a book kept for the purpose, as follows:

"A. Gun discharged for making a *false report*."

CURIOUS ADVERTISEMENT.—The following lines are in the window of a shoemaker's shop, nearly opposite Apothecaries' Hall, London. "Surgery performed upon old boots and shoes, by adding of feet, making good the legs, binding the broken, healing the wounded, mending the constitution, and supporting the body with a new soul. Advice gratis, by S. Giles."

TOBACCO. — In a magazine, of the year 1654, we meet with a song in praise of tobacco, which contains as much perhaps, as can be said in its defence :

"Much meat doth gluttning procure,
To feed men fat as swine,
But he's a frugal man indeed
That on a leaf can dine ;
He needs no napkin for his hands,
His fingers' ends to wipe,
That hath his kitchen in a box,
His roast meat in a pipe."

A SIMPLE QUESTION. — A party had lately climbed a considerable way up the usual track on Niddaw, when a gentleman who had given frequent broad hints of being a man of superior knowledge, said to the guide, "Pray which is the *highest part* of this mountain?" — "The *top*, sir," replied the guide.

A PUN. — Two Oxonians dining together, one of them noticed a spot of grease on the neckcloth of his companion, and said, "I see you are a *Grecian*." "Pooh!" said the other, "that's far-fetched." "No, indeed," said the punster, "I made it on the *spot*."

CHESTER IN AN UPROAR. — About the time of Bonaparte's departure for St. Helena, a respectably dressed man caused a number of handbills to be distributed through Chester, in which he informed the public, that a great number of genteel families had embarked at Plymouth, and would certainly proceed with the British regiment appointed to accompany the ex-emperor to St. Helena ; he added further, that the island being dreadfully infested with rats, his majesty's ministers had determined that it should be forthwith effectually cleared of those noxious animals. To facilitate this important purpose, he had been deputed to purchase as many cats and thriving kittens as could possibly be procured for money in a short space of time ; and therefore he publicly offered in his handbills 16s. for every athletic full-grown tom-cat ; 10s. for every adult female puss ; and half-a-crown for every thriving vigorous kitten that could swill milk, pursue a ball of thread, or fasten its young fangs in a dying mouse. On the evening of the third day after this advertisement had been distributed, the people of Chester were astonished with an irruption of a multitude of old women, boys and girls, in their streets, all of whom carried on their shoulders either a bag or a basket, which appeared to contain some restless animal.

Every road, every lane was thronged with this comical procession, and the wondering spectators of the scene were involuntarily compelled to remember the old riddle about St. Ives :

"As I was going to St. Ives,
I met fifty old wives ;
Every wife had fifty sacks,
Every sack had fifty cats,
Every cat had fifty kittens,
Kittens, cats, sacks and wives,
How many were going to St. Ives ?"

Before night a congregation of nearly 3000 cats was collected in Chester. The happy bearers of these sweet-voiced creatures proceeded all (as directed by the advertisement) towards one street with their delectable burdens. Here they became closely wedged together. A vocal concert soon ensued. The women screamed ; the cats squalled ; the boys and girls shrieked treble, and the dogs of the street howled bass, so that it soon became difficult for the nicest ear to ascertain whether the canine, the feline, or the human tones were predominant. Some of the cat-bearing ladies, whose dispositions were not of the most placid nature, finding themselves annoyed by their neighbors, soon cast down their burdens, and began to box. A battle royal ensued. The cats sounded the war-whoop with might and main. Meanwhile, the boys of the town, who seemed mightily to relish the sport, were actually employed in opening the mouths of the deserted sacks, and liberating the cats from their forlorn situation. The enraged animals bounded immediately on the shoulders and heads of the combatants, and ran spitting, squalling, and clawing, along the undulating sea of skulls, towards the walls of the houses of the good people of Chester. The citizens, attracted by the noise, had opened their windows to gaze at the fun. The cats, rushing with the rapidity of lightning up the pillars, and then across the balustrades and galleries, for which the town is so famous, leaped slap-dash through the open windows into the apartments. Never since the days of the celebrated Hugh Lupus were the drawing-rooms of Chester filled with such a crowd of unwelcome guests. Now were heard the crashes of broken china ; the howling of affrighted dogs ; the cries of distressed damsels, and the groans of well-fed citizens. All Chester was soon in arms ; and dire were the deeds of vengeance executed on the feline race. Next morning about five hundred dead bodies were seen floating on the river Dee, where they had been ignominiously thrown by their two-

legged victors. The rest of the invading host, having evacuated the town, dispersed in the utmost confusion to their respective homes.

PATRICK HENRY.—When Patrick Henry, who gave the first impulse to the ball of the American revolution in Virginia, introduced his celebrated resolution on the Stamp Act into the House of Burgesses of Virginia, (May, 1765,) he exclaimed, when descending on the tyranny of the obnoxious act, "Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles I. his Cromwell; and George III."—"Treason!" cried the speaker; "treason, treason!" echoed from every part of the house. It was one of those trying moments which are decisive of character. Henry faltered not for an instant; but rising to a loftier attitude, and fixing on the speaker an eye flashing with fire, continued, "*may profit by their example.*" If this be treason, make the most of it."

HIGHWAYMAN AND SAILOR.—One of the Dover stages, on its way to London, was stopped by a single highwayman, who was informed by the coachman there were no passengers inside, and only one in the basket, and he was a sailor. The robber then proceeded to exercise his employment on the tar; when waking him out of his sleep, Jack demanded what he wanted; to which the son of plunder replied, "Your money." "You shan't have it," said Jack. "No!" replied the robber; "then I'll blow your brains out." "Blow away, then, you land-lubber," cried Jack, squirting the tobacco juice out of his mouth; "I may as well go to London without brains as without money: drive on, coachman."

FOUR MERRY FELLOWS.—Theo. Cibber, in company with three other good livers, made an excursion. One had a false set of teeth; a second, a glass eye; a third, a cork leg; but the fourth had nothing particular, except a remarkable way of shaking his head. They travelled in a post-coach, and while at the first stage, after each had made merry with his neighbor's infirmity, they agreed at every baiting-place they would all affect the same singularity. When they came to breakfast, they were all to squint; and as the countrymen stood gaping round when they first alighted, "Od rot it," cried one, "how that man squints!"—"Why, dom me," said a second, "here be another squinting fellow!" The third was thought to be a better squinter than the other two,

and the fourth better than all the rest. In short, language cannot express how admirably they squinted, for they went one degree beyond the superlative. At dinner, they appeared to have cork legs, and their stumping about made more diversion than they had done at breakfast. At tea, they were all deaf; but at supper, which was at the Ship, at Dover, each man resumed his character, the better to play his part in a farce they had concerted among them. When they were ready to go to bed, Cibber called out to the waiter, "Here, you fellow, take out my teeth!"—"Teeth, sir!" said the man. "Ay, teeth, sir. Unscrew that wire, and they'll all come out together." After some hesitation, the man did as he was ordered. This was no sooner performed than a second called out, "Here, you, take out my eye!"—"Lord, sir!" said the waiter, "your eye!"—"Yes, my eye. Come here, you stupid dog; pull up that eyelid, and it will come out as easy as possible." This done, the third cried out, "Here, you rascal, take off my leg!" This he did with less reluctance, being before apprized that it was cork, and also conceived that it would be his last job. He was, however, mistaken. The fourth watched his opportunity, and while the frightened waiter was surveying with rueful countenance the eye, teeth, and leg, lying on the table, cried out, in a frightful hollow voice, "Come here, sir,—take off my head!" Turning round, and seeing the man's head shaking like that of a mandarin upon a chimney-piece, he darted out of the room, and after tumbling headlong down stairs, he ran about the house declaring that the gentlemen up stairs were certainly all demons.

LAUGHTER NO PROOF OF A MERRY HEART.—That laughter is by no means an unequivocal symptom of a merry heart, there is a remarkable anecdote of Carlini, the drollest buffoon ever known on the Italian stage at Paris. A French physician being consulted by a person who was subject to the most gloomy fits of melancholy, advised his patient to mix in scenes of gayety, and, particularly, to frequent the Italian theatre; "And," said he, "if Carlini does not dispel your gloomy complaint, your case must be desperate indeed!"—"Alas, sir," replied the patient, "I myself am Carlini, but while I divert all Paris with mirth, and make them almost die with laughter, I am myself actually dying with chagrin and melancholy!" Immoderate laughter, like the immoderate use of strong cordials, gives

only a temporary appearance of cheerfulness, which is soon terminated by an increased depression of spirits.

MOSQUITOES. — The following amusing account of the annoyance suffered in hot climates by mosquitoes at night, while in bed, is from the third series of Captain Basil Hall's entertaining "Fragments." As the curtains are carefully tucked in close under the mattress all round, you must decide at what part of the bed you choose to make your entry. Having surveyed the ground, and clearly made up your mind on this point, you take in your right hand a kind of brush or switch, generally made of a horse's tail; or, if you be tolerably expert, a towel may answer the purpose. With your left hand you then seize that part of the skirt of the curtain which is thrust under the bedding at the place you intend to enter, and by the light of the cocoa-nut oil lamp, which burns on the floor of every bedroom in Hindoostan, you first drive away the mosquitoes from your immediate neighborhood, by whisking round your horse-tail; and before proceeding further, you must be sure that you have effectually driven the enemy back.

If you fail in this manner, your repose is effectually dashed for that night; for these confounded animals — it is really difficult to keep from swearing even at the recollection of the villains, though at the distance of ten thousand miles from them — these well-cursed animals, then, appear to know perfectly well what is going to happen, and assemble with the vigor and bravery of flank companies appointed to head a storming party, ready in one instant to rush into the breach, careless alike of horse-tails and towels. Let it be supposed, however, that you have succeeded in beating back your enemy. You next promptly form an opening not a hair's breadth larger than your own person, into which you leap, like Harlequin through a hoop, or, to use Jack's phrase, "as if the devil had kicked you on end!"

Of course, with all the speed of intense fear, you close up the gap through which you have shot yourself into your sleeping quarters. If all these arrangements have been well managed, you may amuse yourself for a while by scoffing at, and triumphing over, the clouds of baffled mosquitoes outside, who dash themselves against the meshes of the net in vain attempts to enter your sanctum. If, however, for your sins, any one of their number has succeeded in

entering the place along with yourself, he is not such an ass as to betray his presence while you are flushed with victory, wide awake, and armed with the means of his destruction. Far from this, the scoundrel allows you to chuckle over your fancied great doings, and to lie down with all the complacency and fallacious security of your conquest; and under the entire assurance of enjoying a tranquil night's rest. Alas for such presumptuous hopes! Scarcely have you dropped gradually from these visions of the day to the yet more blessed visions of the night, and the last faint pressure of your eyelids has been quite overcome by the gentle pressure of sleep, when, in deceitful slumber, you hear something like the sound of trumpets.

Straightway your imagination is kindled, and you fancy yourself in the midst of a fierce fight, and struggling, not against petty insects, but against armed men and thundering cannon! In the excitement of the mortal conflict of your dream, you awake, not displeased, mayhap, to find that you are safe and snug in bed. But, in the next instant, what is your dismay when you are again saluted by the odious notes of a mosquito close to your ear! The perilous fight of the previous dream, in which your honor had become pledged, and your life at hazard, is all forgotten in the pressing reality of this waking calamity. You resolve to do or die, and not to sleep, or even attempt to sleep, till you have overcome the enemy. Just as you have made this manly resolve, and, in order to deceive the foe, have pretended to be fast asleep, the wary mosquito is again heard circling over you at a distance, but gradually coming nearer and nearer, in a spiral descent, and at each turn gaining upon you one inch, till at length he almost touches your ear, and, as you suppose, is just about to settle upon it. With a sudden jerk, and full of wrath, you bring up your hand, and give yourself such a box on the ear as would have staggered the best friend you have in the world, and might have crushed twenty thousand mosquitoes, had they been there congregated.

Being convinced that you have now done for him, you must mutter between your teeth one of those satisfactory little apologies for an oath which indicate gratified revenge, and down you lie again. In less than ten seconds, however, the very same felon whom you fondly hoped you had executed is again within hail of you, and you can almost fancy there is scorn in the tone of his abominable hum. You of course

watch his motions still more intently than before, but only by the ear, for you can never see him. We shall suppose that you fancy that he is aiming at your left hand: indeed, as you are almost sure of it, you wait till he has ceased his song, and then you give yourself another smack, which, I need not say, proves quite as harmless as the first. About this stage of the action, you discover, to your horror, that you have been soundly bit in one ear and in both heels, but when or how you cannot tell.

These wounds, of course, put you into a fine rage, partly from the pain, and partly from the insidious manner in which they have been inflicted. Up you spring on your knees—not to pray, Heaven knows! but to fight. You seize your horse's tail with spiteful rage, and after whisking it round and round, and cracking it in every corner of the bed, you feel pretty certain that you must at last have demolished your friend. In this unequal warfare you pass the live-long night, alternately scratching and cuffing yourself—fretting and fuming to no purpose—feverish, angry, sleepy, provoked, and wounded in twenty different places. At last, just as the long-expected day begins to dawn, you drop off quite exhausted into an unsatisfactory heavy slumber during which your triumphant enemy banquets on your carcass at his convenient leisure. As the sun is rising, the barber enters the room to remove your beard before you step into the bath, and you awaken only to discover the bloated and satiated monster clinging to the top of your bed, an easy but useless and inglorious prey.

SUPERSTITION OF SAILORS.—The following is from Messrs. Bennet and Tyerman's *Voyages and Travels*:—"Our chief mate said, that on board a ship where he had served, the mate on duty ordered some of the youths to reef the main-top-sail. When the first got up, he heard a strange voice saying—'It blows hard.' The lad waited for no more; he was down in a trice, and, telling his adventures, a second immediately ascended, laughing at the folly of his companion, but returned even more quickly, declaring that he was quite sure that a voice, not of this world, had cried in his ear—'It blows hard.' Another went, and another, but each came back with the same tale.

"At length the mate, having sent up the whole watch, ran up the shrouds himself; and when he reached the haunted spot, heard the dreadful words distinctly uttered

in his ears—'It blows hard.'—'Ay, ay, old one; but blow it ever so hard, we must ease the earings, for all that,' replied the mate undauntedly; and, looking round, he spied a fine parrot perched on one of the clues—the thoughtless author of all the false alarms, which had probably escaped from some other vessel, but had not been discovered to have taken refuge on this. Another of our officers mentioned, that on one of his voyages, he remembered a boy having been sent up to clear a rope which had got foul above the mizen-top. Presently, however, he came back, trembling, and almost tumbling to the bottom, declaring that he had seen 'Old Davy' aft the cross-trees. Moreover, that the Evil One had a huge head and face, with pricked ears, and eyes as bright as fire. Two or three others were sent up in succession; to all of whom the apparition glared forth, and was identified by each to be 'Old Davy,' sure enough.

"The mate, in rage, at length mounted himself, when, resolutely, as in the former case, searching for the bugbear, he soon ascertained the innocent cause of so much terror to be a large horned owl, so lodged as to be out of sight to those who ascended on the other side of the vessel, but which, when any one approached the cross-trees, popped up his portentous visage to see what was coming. The mate brought him down in triumph, and 'Old Davy,' the owl, became a very peaceable shipmate among the crew, who were no longer scared by his horns and eyes; for sailors turn their backs on nothing when they know what it is. Had the birds, in these two instances, departed as they came, of course they would have been deemed supernatural visitants to the respective ships, by all who had heard the one or seen the other."

GEORGE IV.—When this monarch was in Ireland, he told Lord Roden that on a particular morning he was coming to breakfast with him. He accordingly came; and bringing with him two or three of the nobility, happened to arrive just as his lordship and family assembled for domestic worship. Lord Roden, being told that his guest had arrived, went to the door, and met him with every expression of respect, and seated him and the gentlemen that accompanied him in the parlor. He then turned to the king and said, "Your majesty will not doubt that I feel highly honored by this visit; but there is a duty, which I have not yet discharged this morning, which I

owe to the King of kings — that of performing domestic worship; and your majesty will be kind enough to excuse me while I retire with my household to attend to it." "Certainly," replied the king, "but I am going with you," — and immediately rose and followed him into the hall, where the family were assembled, and taking his station in an old-arm chair, remained during the family devotions.

This anecdote certainly reflects honor both upon the king and the nobleman, displaying in the one the dignity of Christian principle, and in the other, the courtesy of a gentleman, and the regard felt for a consistent religious character.

GEORGE III. — A respectable mechanic, who was personally known to the king, was, through affliction in his family, brought into great pecuniary difficulty. He was advised to present a petition to the king, stating his circumstances. He did so, and his majesty was pleased to appoint a certain hour the next morning, when he would see him.

He went accordingly to the door of the queen's lodge, but through diffidence did not ring for admittance. He lingered till the appointed time was past a few minutes, when the king came-out with some attendants. He instantly observed the petitioner and said, "I desired you to be here precisely at such an hour; it is now five minutes past the time; you know that I am punctual. Follow me."

The king then proceeded through several rooms to his private closet, and having shut the door, went to his desk, and took out a purse and gave it to the applicant and said, "There is money to pay your debts, and a trifle for yourself." The humble petitioner, overwhelmed with the king's goodness, dropped on his knees, and made a stammering effort to thank the king, but a flood of tears prevented him. His majesty instantly put forth his hand, and with considerable emotion said, "Get up, get up; thank God that I have it in my power to help an honest man."

MARSHAL TURENNE. — A young officer of noble family imagined he had received an insult from Marshal Turenne, and demanded satisfaction in the usual manner. The marshal made no reply to his challenge; the officer repeated it several times, but the marshal still maintained the same silence. Irritated at this apparent contempt, the officer resolved to compel him to the

acceptance of his invitation. For this purpose, he watched him upon his walks, and at length met him in the public street, accompanied by two other general officers: he hurried towards him, and to the astonishment and even terror of those who saw him, he spat in the marshal's face.

The companions of the marshal started back in amazement; the marshal, his countenance glowing with a sense of indignity, seized the hilt of his sword, and had already half unsheathed it, when, to the astonishment of the spectators, he suddenly returned it to the scabbard, and taking his handkerchief from his pocket, "Young man," said he, "could I wipe your blood from my conscience with as much ease as I can your spittle from my face, I would take your life on the spot. Go, sir!"

Saying this, the marshal retired in all the majesty of triumphant virtue. The young officer was so much struck, as well with his manner as with his virtue, that he did not rest till he had obtained pardon of the marshal. Turenne afterwards became his patron, and under such a preceptor, he became almost a rival of his fame.

CYRUS, KING OF PERSIA. — CYRUS, when quite a youth, at the court of his grandfather Astyages, undertook one day to perform the office of cup-bearer. He delivered the cup very gracefully, but omitted the usual custom of first tasting it himself. The king reminded him of it, supposing that he had forgotten the practice. "No, sir," replied Cyrus, "but I was afraid there might be poison in it; for I have observed that the lords of your court, after drinking it, became noisy, quarrelsome, and frantic, and that even you, sire, seem to have forgotten that you are a king." "Does not the same thing," replied Astyages, "happen to your father?" "Never," said Cyrus. "How then?" "Why, when he has taken what wine he requires, he is no longer thirsty, that is all."

GEN. WOLFE. — When George III. was once expressing his admiration of General Wolfe, some one observed that the general was mad. "Oh! he is mad, is he?" said the king, with great quickness. "Then I wish he would bite some of my other generals."

A FORCIBLE ARGUMENT. — The erudite Bishop Burnett, preaching before Charles II., being much warmed with his subject, uttered some religious truths with great

vehemence, and at the same time striking his fist on the pulpit with much violence, cried out, "Who dare deny this?" "Faith," said the king, "nobody that may be within reach of that fist of yours!"

LOUIS XVI. — The Abbé preached a fast-day sermon before Louis XVI., which contained a great deal of politics, finance, and government, and very little of the gospel. "It is a pity," said the king, as he came out of church, "that the Abbé has not touched on religion; he would then have told us everything."

BONAPARTE. — One great secret of Napoleon's popularity with the army was the fact, that he never forgot those who, by their bravery and devotion, had rendered themselves conspicuous. On the day of a review he could, at a single glance, perceive the men who had distinguished themselves in battle. He would go up to them, address them by their names, and say, "Oh! so you are here? You are brave fellows. I saw you at Aboukir — at Marengo — at Austerlitz — what! have you not got the legion of honor? Stay — I will give it you." Then the delighted soldiers would say to each other — "You see the emperor knows us all — he knows where we have served." What a stimulus was this to soldiers!

MAGNANIMITY OF FREDERIC THE GREAT. — Near Potsdam was a mill which, by its situation, interfered with the view from the windows of Sans Souci — the favorite residence of Frederic. Annoyed at this, and wishing to remove it, the emperor sent to inquire the price at which the owner of the mill would sell it. "For no price," was the reply of the sturdy Prussian. In a moment of anger, Frederic gave orders that the mill should be pulled down. "The king may do this," said the miller, quietly folding his arms, "but there are laws in Prussia." And forthwith he commenced proceedings against the monarch, the result of which was, that the court sentenced Frederic to rebuild the mill, and to pay, beside, a large sum of money as compensation for the injury that he had done. The king was mortified, but had the magnanimity to say, addressing himself to his courtiers, "I am glad to find that just laws and upright judges exist in my kingdom."

A few years after, the head of the honest miller's family, who had, in due course of

time, succeeded to the possession of the little estate, finding himself, after a long struggle, involved in pecuniary difficulties that had become insurmountable, wrote to the king, reminding him of the refusal experienced by him at the hands of his ancestor, and stating that if his majesty now entertained a similar desire to obtain possession of the property, it would be very agreeable to him, in his present embarrassed circumstances, to sell the mill. Frederic immediately wrote with his own hand the following reply:

"My dear Neighbor — I cannot allow you to sell the mill; it must remain in your possession so long as one member of your family exists; for it belongs to the history of Prussia. I lament, however, to hear that you are in circumstances of embarrassment; and therefore send you 6000 dollars to arrange your affairs, in the hope that this sum will be sufficient for the purpose. Consider me always your affectionate neighbor
FREDERIC WILLIAM."

A FRENCH MINISTER. — Some years ago, a traveller, passing through Clermont in France, wished to see the country-house where Massillon used to spend the greater part of the year, and applied to an old vicar, who, since the death of the bishop, had never entered the house. He consented, however, to gratify the traveller, notwithstanding the profound grief he would suffer from revisiting a place so dear to his remembrance.

They accordingly set out together, and the vicar pointed out to the stranger the different places of importance. "There," said he, with tears in his eyes, "is the alley in which the excellent prelate used to walk with us; there is the arbor in which he used to sit and read; this is the garden he used to cultivate with his own hands." They then entered the house, and when they came to the room where Massillon died, "This," said he, bursting into tears, "is the place where we lost him."

HENRY IV. — This monarch was standing one day with some of his courtiers, at the entrance of a village, and a poor man, passing by, bowed down to the very ground. The king, with great condescension, returned his salutation; at which one of his attendants ventured to express his surprise, when the monarch replied to him, "Would you have your king exceeded in politeness by one of the lowest of his subjects?"



CHANDALAHs.

THE Chandalahs, or Chandalus, are a tribe of Hindoos, who lead a life of poverty and degradation on account of their irregular parentage. They exist in all parts of Hindostan.

The Hindoos have been from time immemorial divided into *castes*, or distinct orders. These castes are four, namely: 1. The *Brahmins*, or priests, whose especial duty it is to read, pray, and instruct. 2. The *Chatryas*, who exercise the military profession, and hold political offices. 3. The *Bhyse*, consisting of merchants and agriculturists. 4. The *Sudras*, whose duty is subjection, labor, and servitude.

This separation of castes is supposed by the Hindoos to have sprung from the original formation of mankind, and the first classification of human beings. The custom is undoubtedly of the most remote antiquity, and has become inseparably connected with the social institutions and national manners of the people of Hindostan. Such has been the effect of this wonderful system, and so deep a root has it taken in the prejudices and habits of the Hindoos, that, in the midst of all the wars, revolutions, and civil tumults which have disturbed their country for thousands of years past, the four castes have been kept distinct, each exercising its peculiar occupations, and abstaining from all

interference with the others. The Brahmin is still the sacred depositary of religious knowledge, and to him all the other classes pay the highest deference. The Chatrya is the only regular soldier, the Bhyse the only regular cultivator and merchant, in Hindostan; and the Sudra remains the "servant of all work."

The more honorable the caste is, the more numerous are the restrictions under which its members are laid, and the prerogatives which they enjoy are the more valuable. Very severe penalties are imposed upon those who disregard any of the rules of their caste. To this point of honor the Hindoo patiently sacrifices his comfort, his health, and his life. An anecdote will illustrate this in a very forcible manner.

A Brahmin of Calcutta, while laboring under a severe disease, exposed himself on the banks of the Ganges, where he passed some hours in contemplation and prayer. He waited, motionless, for the tide to advance and bear him into the sacred waves, where, according to the superstitious belief of the Hindoos, a blessed and delightful death was to await him. A party of English people happened to pass near him in a boat, and, supposing the Brahmin to be suffering from the effects of some unfortunate accident, they took him on board, and re-

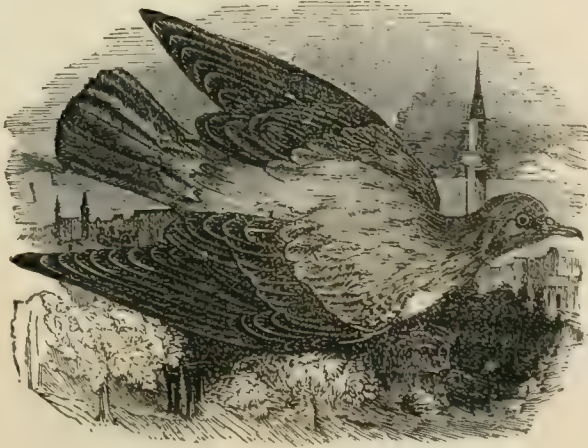
stored him to animation by the help of cordials and food.

His brother Brahmins now pronounced him infamous, degraded from his caste, and unworthy of being spoken to by a Hindoo. It was to no purpose that the Englishmen showed, by undeniable testimony, that the fault was theirs, and not the Brahmin's, as the latter was found by them in a state of utter insensibility. The Hindoo law was inflexible. He had received drink and food from strangers, contrary to its express commands; and for this he was deprived of all the means of subsistence, and made an outcast from society.

The English courts of justice decided that those who had saved his life should maintain him. The unhappy Brahmin, deserted by all his friends, and followed everywhere by demonstrations of contempt and scorn, dragged out a miserable existence for three years, and then put an end to his own life.

Besides the four great castes, there are

numerous mixed classes of Hindoos, who have arisen from unlawful intermarriages between the castes, and other circumstances by which individuals become degraded from their rank. The *Chandalahs* constitute one of these impure classes. They arose originally, it is said, from the marriage of a Sudra with a female Brahmin. A *Chandalah* is esteemed a very degraded being. His occupation is generally that of a fisherman, or day-laborer. He carries the dead to their graves, officiates as public executioner, and performs all those deeds of abject drudgery that in other countries are devolved upon slaves and criminals. On the Malabar and Coromandel coast, such is the abomination in which this unfortunate class is held, that if one of them were to touch a Rajpoot or a Nair, the person touched would instantly put him to death. Even the shadow of a *Chandalah* falling upon an individual of another class, is considered as polluting him.



CARRIER DOVE.

THIS interesting bird was known and employed in very ancient times, throughout the east, for conveying intelligence. Linnæus, the naturalist, gives it the name of *columba tabellaria*, which is derived from a word signifying a letter.

This species of dove, or pigeon, is of a larger size than the greater part of the pigeons, being fifteen inches in length, and sometimes weighing twenty ounces. The symmetry of its form is quite striking. Those which are of a blue or a piebald color are most esteemed by pigeon-fanciers. We

know not the country to which the carrier originally belonged.

Pliny, the ancient Roman writer, makes a striking remark upon the intelligence conveyed by pigeons at the siege of Modena. "Of what avail," he says, "were sentinels, circumvallations, or nets obstructing the view, when intelligence could be conveyed by aerial messengers?"

If carrier pigeons are hoodwinked, and in this state conveyed from twenty to a hundred miles, they will find their way back to the place of their nativity. They are regu-

larly trained to this service in Turkey and Persia. They are carried first, while young, short flights of half a mile; afterwards the distance is gradually increased, till at length they will return from the farthest part of the kingdom, and even from foreign lands, across the sea. It was customary, and it is probably the case now, that every bashaw had a basket of these pigeons, bred in the seraglio, which were used in cases of pressing emergency.

It is said that, while an army was besieging Tyre in the time of the crusades, intelligence from a distant quarter was suspected, from a pigeon being frequently observed hovering about the city. The besiegers obtained possession of the bird, and removed the billet, containing useful intelligence to those who were within the city. This billet was replaced by another, containing deceitful intelligence; the bird was liberated, and, through the false information, the besiegers got possession of the city.

Carrier pigeons have often been used, in our day, to convey intelligence between London and Paris. Not long since, a Boston editor adopted a very ingenious contrivance for getting news before any one else. A friend of his, at Liverpool, wrote down the news on a piece of paper, and sent it to Halifax by the steamer for Boston. At Halifax, it was delivered to another friend of the editor, who went on board the steamer, taking a carrier pigeon, from Boston, with him. When within one or two hundred miles of Boston, the pigeon was liberated, having the news tied to his neck. Straight he flew to his home at Boston; the editor got the paper, and thus he printed the news before any one else.

This was very ingenious, certainly, but the lightning telegraph beats even the swift-winged carriers; and hereafter these birds will doubtless be permitted to live in their own fashion.



CORAL.

CORAL is a hard substance, formed in the sea by collections of insects, called *corallines*. It is of three colors—*white*, *black*, and *red*. These are all used for ornaments, but the red is preferred. In the Mediterranean Sea, near the coast of Italy, there are large fisheries for coral. In many parts of the sea coral is produced, but it is most abundant in warm latitudes. It is said that, in some places, the sailors, as they are going

along in their ships, look down and see forests of coral, within which fishes of many forms are seen gliding about, apparently very happy. Hence the poet speaks of the

" ——— coral grove,
Where the purple mullet and goldfish rove."

Though coral seems like stone, it is made by very minute, soft, insignificant creatures; and such are their number and their industry, that they build up whole islands in the midst of the sea. Many of the islands in the Pacific Ocean are the work of *corallines*.



CAMPHOR TREE.

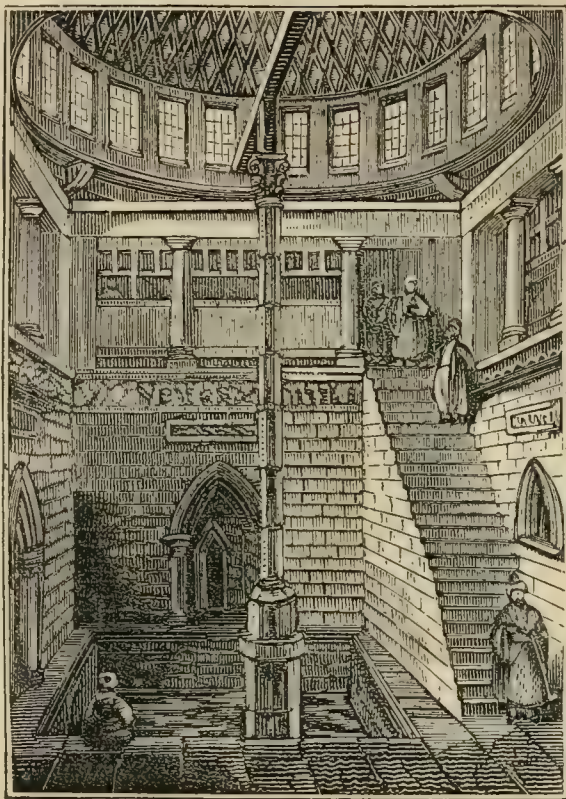
THIS grows naturally in the woods of the more western parts of Japan, and in the adjacent islands of the far distant Pacific. That part which smells stronger of camphor than any other is the root, which substance it yields in great quantities. The bark of the stalk has outwardly rather a rough appearance; the inner surface is smooth and mucous, and is very easily separated from the wood, which is dry in its nature, and white in its color. The leaves stand upon slender, delicate footstalks, having an entire undulating margin running out into a point; the upper surface of the leaf is of a lively, shining green, and the lower herbaceous and silky. The flowers are produced on the tops of footstalks, which proceed from the arm-pits of the leaves, but not till the tree has attained considerable age and size. The flower-stalks are slender, branched at the top, and divided into very short pedicles, each supporting a single flower; these flowers

are white, and consist of six petals, which are succeeded by a shining purple berry, of the size of a pea. This is composed of a soft, pulpy substance, of a purple color, and has the taste of cloves and camphor—and of a kernel of the size of a pepper, that is covered with a black, shining skin, of an insipid taste.

The *camphor* is a solid concrete juice, extracted from the wood of the camphor tree. Pure camphor is very white, clear, and unctuous to the touch: the taste is bitterish-aromatic, and accompanied with a sense of coolness: the smell is particularly fragrant, something like that of rosemary, but much stronger; it has been long esteemed for its medicinal qualities, and has been justly celebrated in fevers, malignant and epidemic distempers. In *deliria*, where opiates failed in procuring sleep, but rather increased and aggravated the symptoms, this medicine has been often found to procure it. Dr. Cullen attributes these effects to its sedative quali-

ties, and denies that camphor has any other property than that which is anti-spasmodic and sedative, or composing. He says that it is a very powerful medicine, and capable of doing much good or harm.

To all brute creatures camphor is poisonous. By experiments made, it appears that in some it produced sleep followed by death. In others, before death, they were awakened into convulsions and rage.



THE NILOMETER.

THIS is a thin column, or pillar, marked in divisions, to ascertain the rise and fall of the river Nile. It is situated in the midst of a round tower, on the island of Rhoda, between Cairo and Geeza, and is built in the middle of the river. In this tower is a cistern of marble, through which the Nile flows; the bottom of the river and the bottom of the well being on the same level. From the centre of this well rises the slender pillar, which is marked into twenty divisions, of twenty inches each; the space marked on the column is somewhat more than thirty-six feet.

This column is of the greatest importance to the Pacha of Egypt; it being the chief means by which he is enabled to fix the tribute or tax, according to the height of the inundation.

The tower in which the Nilometer is

placed is lighted by about eighteen or twenty windows, which form a belt round the base of the dome; immediately beneath these windows, and considerably above the basin or well, are rooms or apartments for those who come to see the height of the Nile, from whence a flight of about twenty-five or thirty stone steps leads to the marble pavement, which forms the top of the cistern or well, and in the centre of which the nilometer is placed.

On ascertaining that the overflow will be such as to fertilize all the land, the grand canals are opened with great ceremony, festivity, and rejoicing. As soon as the Nile retires from the fields, they are sown with all sorts of grain, and in a short space of time the face of the whole country is variegated with the hues of flowering plants and ripening corn.



ROHILLAS.

THE Rohillas are a people in the northern part of Hindostan. They are supposed to have been originally emigrants from Afghanistan, who left that country in the early part of the last century, in the character of adventurers in quest of military service.

The name of *Rohilla* is said to be derived from *Roh*, an Afghan word signifying a hill or mountain. It is remarkable that mountaineers, in all parts of the world, are peculiarly addicted to migration, and an adventurous, wandering life, as we see in the case of the Swiss, the Scotch, the Savoyards, the Tyrolese, etc. On their arrival in Hindostan, the Rohillas settled in that district which lies between Delhi and Sirhind, eastward of the country of the Sikhs. This territory received from them the name of Rohilcund.

During the period of their independence, the Rohillas were, with few exceptions, the only Mahometans in India who exercised the profession of husbandry. They made many improvements in various branches of agriculture, and soon surpassed all their neighbors in the abundance and superior quality of the productions which their industry raised from the soil. They were divided into several independent tribes, but in times of general danger they acted in concert. They were capable of bringing into the field a numerous and well-disciplined body of cavalry. They were particularly distinguished for a mortal antipathy toward their neighbors, the Mahrattas.

In the year 1773, the Mahrattas invaded the country of the Rohillas. The British interfered in this war, and sent an army to the relief of the Rohillas. The Mahrattas were defeated, but this success proved the ruin of those who were delivered from the invasion. In a dispute which took place shortly afterward between the Rohillas and the Nabob of Oude, the latter sought the aid of Warren Hastings, the British governor-general of India. The territory of Rohilcund was in a most thriving condition, yielding an annual revenue of five millions of dollars from the land alone, besides the products from other sources of wealth. These riches tempted the cupidity of Hastings, and, at his instigation, the nabob made war upon the Rohillas, plundering and devastating their country in the most barbarous manner. In the end, the British obtained possession of all their territory, and hold it to this day.

The Rohillas, under the British dominion, are still brave and industrious, but the country has greatly declined from its ancient prosperity. A traveller, passing over this region after the conquest, uses the following language :

"On the first of February, after a tedious journey, leading through a lonely, inhospitable country, I arrived at Oulah. Of the few fellow-travellers pursuing the same track, two wolves, a fox, and two hares, composed the greater number. The shrubs

and high grass had so concealed the path, that I was quite bewildered, and had lost my way, when a small village on an eminence attracted my notice, and held out the prospect of relief. But such is the instability of sublunary pleasure, that this promising mark proved a false beacon. The hamlet was unroofed, and its inhabitants had sought a more friendly land.

"Then, in the bitterness of my heart, I gave up Sujah-ud-Dowlah (the Nabob of Oude) to as many imps of darkness as chose to take him, and was about consigning the English to the same crew, for having expelled from a country which they had made populous and opulent the extensive tribe of Rohillas. How insatiable, cruel, and destructive even of its own purposes, appears

ambition, when placed in this light! It prompted a prince, already possessed of an ample, fair territory, to seize the domain of his neighbors, who, by a salutary system of government, had enriched their country, and made their name respected. The conqueror, by the fortune of war, subjects into a province this flourishing territory, which is soon converted into desolate plains and deserted villages. The town of Oulah, once crowded with inhabitants, and adorned with mosques and spacious buildings, is now verging to ruin, and many of its streets are choked up with fallen habitations."

In person, the Rohillas are a tall, handsome race of people, and, when compared with their neighbors, may be called white.



THE DODO.

THIS bird, instead of being designed for swiftness, looks as if it was among the most stupid of living things. It was a native of the Isle of France, and was common there many years ago, but it is now extinct. It was an enormous creature, and four dodos would have made a meal for a hundred men.

The dodo was originally found on the uninhabited islands in the Indian Ocean, and in great numbers, but from various accounts it is supposed now to have entirely disappeared. The dodo, or, as it is sometimes called, the *solitaire*, was seen in numbers by Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator, in 1497, and in 1514, on the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius. He speaks of them as being very tame, and not at all afraid of man.

Leguat, who visited the island of Rodriguez in 1691, gives a long account of the *solitaire*. Though generally represented as a clumsy and ill-formed bird, he speaks of it as graceful and dignified in its movements, and as possessing great beauty. Though it would allow itself to be approached, yet, when caught, it was incapable of being tamed, and would refuse all nourishment. The nest was made of a heap of palm-leaves raised a foot and a half from the ground, in which one egg was deposited. When the dodo finally disappeared from these islands is not known, but no traces have been found of it since the commencement of the eighteenth century.



FAKIRS OF HINDOSTAN.

IN Hindostan there are many singular customs of a religious nature. The people have sacred shrines, in different parts of the country, which are frequented by pilgrims, who imagine that they derive great religious benefit from visiting such places. These are established in the loveliest spots of the green earth; they are generally situated near the sea, the sources and junctions of fine rivers, the tops of the hills, the recesses of dim grottos, by the side of bright waterfalls, or any other place of natural delight and difficult access. Amid these spots, more sacred and inviolable than any other, the *Fakirs*, or eastern monks, answering to the friars, anchorites, and solitaries, of Europe, take up their abiding stations. Here they are to be found in numbers, dependent upon the bounty and beneficence of the charitable pilgrims and wealthy devotees.

Every Hindoo is at liberty to adopt this mode of life, except the *Chandalahs*. Of the numerous class of which they consist, none are so much respected as the *Saniaseys* and *Yogeyes*. These quit their relations, and every concern of this life, and wander about the country, unfixed in their abode.

Between these two sects, the *Yogey* and

the *Saniasey*, the precise distinction is not known. The former, in Sanscrit, signifies a divine person; the latter, one who has forsaken the world.

The fakir, or holy mendicant, is named a *Purrum Hungse*. Residing under the rich shade of the palm or banian, he is insensible to the calls of nature in any way; he scarcely either eats or drinks; the position which he has taken he would remain in for a thousand years, were his life but so prolonged. He is represented as absorbed in pure and holy contemplation; his mind is fixed, and insensible to external things: he is called a *Purrum Hungse* — that is, a *first or perfect being*.

The inferior sects are very many. The most numerous, perhaps, are those who deliver themselves up to severe penances and excruciating corporeal mortifications; and the torments to which they submit themselves would be unbelievable, had we not the highest and most credible authorities as vouchers. A few of their penances we shall attempt to enumerate.

Some, at the grand festivals, may be seen sitting between immense bonfires, sufficient to roast an ox, while they stand on one leg,

gazing at the scorching beams of the sun, and, thus exposed to sun and fires, spend the whole day. Some, having made a vow to keep their arms constantly extended over their heads, with their hands clasped together, so continue till they become withered and immovable. Others gaze on the broad orb of the blazing sun till their eyeballs are blasted with excess of light. Some make vows to keep their arms crossed over their breasts for the rest of their days; others to keep their hands forever shut. Some pierce themselves with iron spikes, or mangle their flesh with iron thongs, and sharp, lacerating, metal scourges. Contracted limbs, and members shrunk up, are everywhere to be seen. Not to move, indeed, is the general distinguishing feature of these self-inflictions, both in regard to the positions of the persons, as well as the place they occupy.

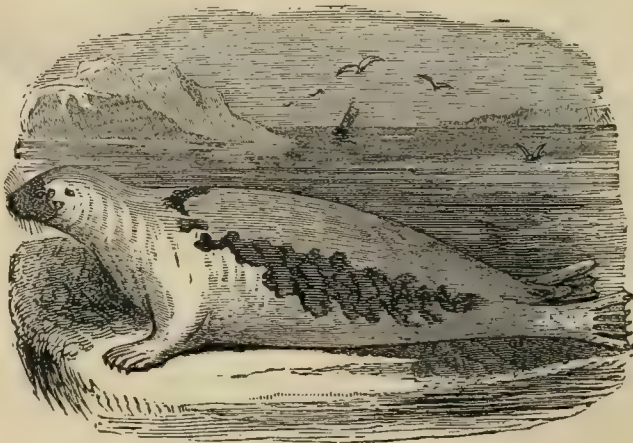
Not long ago, one of these fakirs finished measuring the distance between Benares and Juggernaut with his body, by alternately stretching himself upon the ground and rising!

To what an impudent extent the system of religious begging is carried on in India, one instance, adduced by Bishop Heber, will serve to show. "Meantime," says he, "we were besieged with beggars. The most characteristic, however, of these applicants, was a tall, well-made, but raw-boned man, in the most fantastic array of rags and

wretchedness, and who might have answered admirably to Shakspeare's Edgar. He had a very filthy turban round his head, with a cock's feather in it; two satchels flung over his broad shoulders, — the remains of a cummerbund, which had been scarlet — a large fan of the palmetto leaf in one hand, and over the other wrist an enormous chaplet of wooden beads. He came up to our boatmen with a familiar air; bade them salaam with great cordiality; but, in a voice as deep as a curfew, asked their benevolence. *He was a religious mendicant.* Their bounty was small, and he could not extract a single pice either from Serang or boatmen. They gave him, however, a little rice, which he received in a very bright and clean pot, and then strode away, singing, 'Illah, Illahu!'"

The fakirs are always out in the open air, except at the season the rains begin, when they retire to their houses. Bishop Heber thus describes the appearances of these eastern monks at the holy city, Benares: —

"Fakirs' houses," he observes, "as they are called, occur at every town, adorned with idols, and sending forth an uneasy tinkling and strumming of vinas, byyals, and other discordant instruments; while religious mendicants of every Hindoo sect, with their pitiful exclamations as we passed, '*Agha Sahib, Topee Sahib,*' — the usual names in Hindostan for a European, — '*Khana he waste kooch cheer do,*' (give me something to eat,) soon drew from me the few pence I had."



THE SEAL.

THE seal is of various sizes, and there are many species. But the ordinary length of the seal is from five to six feet; the head is large and round, and the neck short and

thick; on each side of the mouth are several long and stiff whiskers, each hair being marked, throughout its whole length, by numerous alternate dilatations and contrac-

tions; there are also a few stiff hairs over each eye; the tongue is cleft at the tip; the legs are so short as to be scarcely perceptible; the hinder ones are so placed as to be of use to the animal in swimming, but of very little service when walking, being situated at the extremity of the body, and close to each other. All the feet are strongly webbed, but the hind ones much more widely and conspicuously than the fore, having considerably the appearance of fins; each foot is furnished with strong and sharp claws; the tail is very short. The hair of the seal is short and very thick set, varying, in color, from brown, blackish-brown, gray, and sometimes pied, with fawn color and white.

The seal has a very offensive, fishy smell; and when collected in numbers on the shore, their odor can be perceived at a considerable distance.

This animal spends a great part of its time in the water, although it can live perfectly well on land. In summer, they are frequently to be seen, on some sand-bank, which has been left dry by the reflux of the tide; or on some shelving rocks, basking in the sunbeams. It is in these situations that the seal is killed by the hunters. They never enjoy a long state of repose, being very watchful, probably from having no external ears to catch the sound; so that every minute or two they raise their heads, and look round. When they observe an enemy approaching, they suddenly precipitate themselves into the water. The seal swims with great swiftness, dives rapidly, and may be seen rising at a distance of forty or fifty yards, in the course of a few seconds. The food of the seal consists of fish, and various sea-weeds.



TREE HOUSE IN CAFFRARIA.

In this portion of Africa, there is an "Inhabited Tree," which travellers thus describe: "It stands at the base of a range of mountains, due east from Kurrichaine, in a place called '*Ongorutcie Fountain*.' Its gigantic limbs contain seventeen conical huts. These are used as dwellings, being beyond the reach of the lions, which, since the incursion of the Mantates from the ad-

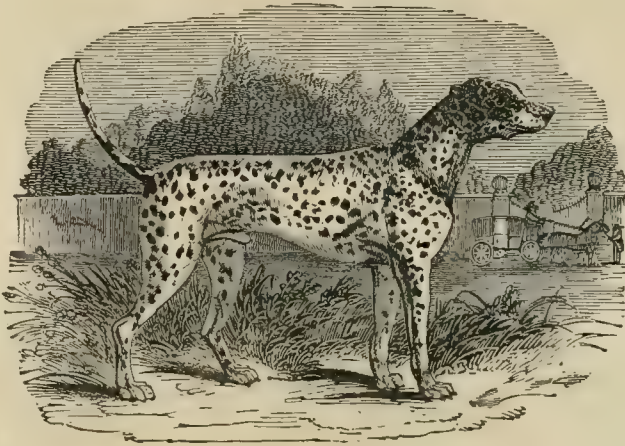
joining country, when so many thousands of persons were massacred, have become very numerous in the neighborhood, and destructive to human life.

"The branches of the tree are supported by forked sticks, or poles, and there are three tiers, or platforms, on which the huts are constructed. The lowest is nine feet from the ground, and holds ten huts; the

second, about eight feet high, has three huts; and the upper story, if it may be so called, contains four. The ascent to these is made by notches cut in the supporting poles; and the huts are built with twigs, thatched with straw, and will contain ten persons, conveniently."

Other villages have been seen by travel-

lers, built similarly to the above; but these were erected on stakes, instead of trees, about eight feet above the ground, about forty feet square,—larger in some places—and containing about seventy or eighty huts. The inhabitants sit under the shade of these platforms during the day, and retire at night to the huts above.



THE DALMATIA DOG.

To us, simple sort of people, profound questions of philosophy are of no very great interest. We like dogs; their liveliness, their sagacity, their faithfulness, their attachment to home and friends, commend them to our love and favor. But who were the first dogs—the Adam and Eve of the canine family? Whether one was a wolf and the other a jackal, as some naturalists pretend, are questions that do not trouble us, in any great degree.

The differences in dogs, however, are matter of very curious interest. They not only differ in size and form, but in disposition, genius, taste and turn of mind. An old book, published in 1498, gives the following description of the proper marks of a greyhound:—

“Headed like a snake —
Necked like a drake —
Footed like a cat —
Tailed like a rat —
Sided like a team —
Chined like a beam.”

How very different is this slender, fleet creature from the bluff, rough, tough bull-dog!

And how different are they both from the little silken-haired lap-dog—gentle, tender, and timid as a child! How different is the shepherd's dog—a busy, hard-working, anxious creature—from the *Dalmatian* dog, who seems a mere fop, only valued for the beauty of his skin and the grace of his form, and seldom used except as an appendage to a coach!

It is this diversity in the character and genius of dogs that makes them fit to be used for so many purposes. Horses, cows, asses, sheep, and pigs, are very useful; but each species is employed for a few purposes only. Dogs, on the contrary, are made to hunt various kinds of animals; some are taught to draw and some to carry burdens; some are trained to guard houses at night; some are made to fetch game from the water; some are taught to defend children; some are made to assist shepherds in keeping and gathering the flock; some are used as companions in walking; and some are pets in the parlor.



LADY HESTER STANHOPE.

THIS celebrated and singular woman was born in 1776, her father being the Earl of Stanhope, and her grandfather the Earl of Chatham. She was brought up by her uncle, the famous William Pitt. After his death, she travelled in different parts of Europe, and finally fixed her residence in a wild and desolate portion of Syria. Here she became known as the *Queen of the Desert*. She lived in great style, pretended to tell future events, and was treated with a kind of awful respect by the surrounding tribes. She was sometimes visited by travellers, from different parts of Europe. One of these, who saw her in 1832, thus describes her: "I was introduced into her cabinet by a little negro child. It was so extremely dark, that it was with difficulty I could distinguish her noble, grave, yet mild and majestic features, clad in an oriental costume. She rose from the divan, advanced, and offered me her hand. She appeared to be about fifty years of age; but she possessed those personal traits which years cannot alter. Freshness, color, and grace, depart

with youth; but when beauty resides in the form itself, in purity of expression, in dignity, in majesty, and a thoughtful countenance, whether in man or woman, this beauty may change with the different periods of life, but it does not pass away;—it eminently characterized the person of Lady Hester Stanhope.

"She wore a white turban, and on her forehead was a purple-colored woollen fillet, which fell on each side of her head as low as her shoulders. A long, yellow Cashmere shawl, and an immense Turkish robe of white silk, with flowing sleeves, enveloped all her person in simple and majestic folds, while an opening of these folds upon the bosom displayed a tunic of rich Persian stuff, covered with flowers, which was attached around the neck by a clasp of pearls. Turkish yellow morocco boots, embroidered with silk, completed this beautiful oriental costume, which she wore with that freedom and grace, as if she had never used any other from her youth."

Though Lady Hester retained her power

over the lower classes by means of their superstitious fears, the neighboring chiefs were not to be thus restrained, and some of them sought by robbery to indemnify themselves for the loss of the accustomed presents. Hoping to coerce her into a renewal of them, they harassed her by petty vexations;—her camels were seized; her servants were beaten; and at length, when she retaliated, a firman was procured, forbidding any Mussulman, on pain of death, to remain in her service, or to carry water to her house. The severity of the last prohibition may be judged from the fact that the water for the use of her house and garden had to be brought from a river three or four miles distance. Her appeal, however, to the Porte, procured the withdrawal of the firman, and saved her gardens from the destruction which a want of irrigation would soon have produced.

In 1837, a new source of vexation to Lady Hester arose. The British government, having received information that some of her English creditors were in a state of destitution, appropriated the pension which Lady Hester had so long received to their

relief. This met with a spirited remonstrance on the part of her ladyship, who called to her aid the Duke of Wellington and other opponents of the whig administration. Failing in these efforts, she appealed to the queen herself, but with no better success. She did not long survive this new source of mortification. On hearing of her illness, the British consul at Beyroot, accompanied by Mr. Thompson, an American missionary, hastened to her assistance; but on their arrival, nothing remained for them to do, but to pay the last sad offices to her remains. She died on the 23d of June, 1839.

Various and opposing motives have been assigned for the unusual conduct of Lady Hester: we think, however, its explanation is to be found in an eccentric imagination, a turn for adventure, and that love of power which is inherent in the human breast. We can hardly consider it more extraordinary that one English lady should be found willing to accept a government under the sunny skies of Syria, than that so many English officers should seek for sway on the burning shores of Africa and the East Indies.



INDIAN FISHING IN SOUTH AMERICA.

A TRAVELLER, who ascended one of the great rivers in the north-eastern portion of South America, describes the manner in which the Indians catch a fine species of fish, called *pacou*, as follows:—

"The third day's journey brought the party to the Fall of Tepayco, at which, being an excellent fishing and hunting station, they halted for half the next day. Here they bought, of a party of Accaway Indians,

several bundles of hai-arry, a kind of vine, with blue, clustering blossoms, and pods with small, gray beans. The full-grown root is three inches in diameter, and contains a white, gummy milk, which is a most powerful narcotic, and is commonly used by the Indians in *poisoning the water to take fish*. They beat it with heavy sticks till it is in shreds, like coarse hemp; they then put it into a vessel of water, which immediately becomes of a milky whiteness, and, when fully saturated, they take the vessel to the spot they have selected, and throwing the infusion over it, in about twenty minutes every fish within its influence rises to the surface, and is either taken by the hand or shot with arrows. *A solid cubic foot of the root will poison an acre of water, even in the falls where the current is so strong.* The fish are not deteriorated in quality, nor do they taint more rapidly when thus killed, than by being netted, or otherwise taken.

The *pacou* fish is generally taken with the

hai-arry, in the following manner: the Indians select a part of the falls of the river where the weya (an aquatic vegetable, eaten by the *pacou*, and other fish) is plentiful, and where traces are visible of the *pacou*, which is gregarious, having lately fed. They then enclose this place with a wall of loose stones, a foot above the surface of the water, leaving spaces for the fish to enter. For these spaces they prepare *parrys*, or wooden hurdles; and about two hours before daybreak, they proceed silently to stop the openings with them. The fish are thus enclosed in a temporary pond, which is inspected at daybreak; and if they are found to be in sufficient number to pay for the hai-arry, they commence beating it. In this way, Mr. Hillhouse saw taken, in less than an hour, two hundred and seven *pacou*, averaging seven pounds weight, with one hundred weight of other fish. The fish thus taken were split, salted, and dried on the rocks.



SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

THIS extraordinary man was born at East Knoyle, in England, in 1632. He was a feeble child, but he displayed wonderful genius at an early period. He had a turn for scientific pursuits, and, at the age of thirteen, invented several curious scientific instruments. At fourteen, he entered the college at Oxford, where he formed intima-

cies with several persons who afterwards became eminent.

He settled in London, and, at the age of twenty-four, had become celebrated for his useful inventions and his writings upon scientific subjects. In 1657, he was appointed by King Charles II. professor of astronomy. In 1666, the great fire in London occurred,

and Wren was employed to plan several edifices, as Temple Bar, the Royal Exchange, the Monument, &c. The first and last of these are still in existence.

But the most celebrated work of Wren's life was the building of St. Paul's Cathedral, of which he was the architect. It is in the heart of London, and, unhappily, the buildings around are crowded so close that its exterior shows to little advantage. It is, however, one of the most splendid edifices in Europe.

The ground plan of this mighty building is in the form of a cross, the length running east and west. It is about five hundred feet long, and three hundred and fifty feet broad in the widest part. It covers about three acres of ground. The ball near the top is large enough to admit several men, and the

cross above it is nearly four hundred feet from the ground.

In America, we have no buildings that compare with this in magnificence. On entering it, and looking up to the dome, it really seemed to me to be a work surpassing human power. The more I surveyed this building, the more it excited my wonder and admiration. It is adorned with many statues, and no one can be surprised that the memory of the man who planned it is held in the highest estimation. This cathedral was commenced in 1675, and was not finished till thirty-five years after. Sir Christopher died in 1723, leaving behind him many monuments of his architectural genius, which are still the pride of the British metropolis.



QUEEN MARGARET AND THE ROBBER.

AMONG the pleasing incidents in the history of England is that of Queen Margaret and the robber. The story carries us back to the year 1450, when there was a violent civil contest in England, called the Wars of the Roses. The king, Henry VI., had been Duke of Lancaster, and his badge was the red rose. Those who took his part

were called Lancasterians, and wore the red rose. The Duke of York claimed the crown, and being aided by many of the nobility, sought to obtain it. His party, called the Yorkists, wore the white rose as their badge.

The strife between these two contending parties continued for a long period, and a great deal of blood was shed in the battles

which took place. One of these occurred near the town of Hexham. Queen Margaret had stationed herself upon an eminence near by, where she could see all the movements of the field. She was a very handsome woman, and on this occasion her head was encircled with a diadem of precious stones, and her dress sparkled with diamonds, more befitting the splendor of a court than the rough usages of a battle-field.

Margaret watched the conflict with intense anxiety, and at last beheld her husband, and his followers, who were defeated, flying from the field. Her attendants, seeking their safety, fled, and left her alone with her son, a boy of tender years, the sole hope of the Lancasterian party. Taking him by the hand, the queen led him toward a thick wood.

"My child," said she, "we will hasten to the forest. If we meet with enemies, fly instantly and conceal thyself. Thou mayst yet live to be King of England."

As she spoke, she reached an opening in the wood and paused, for at that moment a man stepped from behind a tree, and stood in the pathway before her.

"Why do you stop me?" said Margaret, in a bold and determined tone; "you will not molest an unprotected woman?"

The man, surprised, retreated a few steps, and giving a shrill whistle, the queen was instantly surrounded by men, who led her and her son beneath an old oak. Viewing with delight the jewels with which she was adorned, the robbers proceeded to strip them from her dress. They also possessed themselves of the prince's velvet cap, which was ornamented with precious stones, and a very fine sword, with its hilt studded with gold, which hung at his side. These spoils they placed in the hollow trunk of the old oak. One of the robbers, however, seeking to secrete some of the jewels about his own person, the others fell upon him, and a fierce quarrel ensued, the man resolutely refusing to give them up the prize.

Queen Margaret now took courage, as she saw a chance of escape present itself. She drew her child to her side, and telling him to follow her closely, she suddenly glided into the wood, unperceived by the combatants. Pressing forward toward an open plain, at a little distance before her, she was suddenly stopped by an armed man, who placed himself in her path. She drew back, and nearly fainted with terror and fatigue; but suddenly, as if moved by some secret impulse, she took the prince by the hand, and stepping forward, said,

"Here, my friend, I commit to thy care the safety of the heir to the throne of England. This is the Prince of Wales."

The robber stood for a moment silent and motionless: then dropping his sword, and bending his knee,

"Pardon!" he cried, "most gracious lady."

"Alas!" cried Margaret, "we are in thy power. If thou canst assist us in our distressed condition, thou mayst hereafter bless the day when thou didst help Queen Margaret."

"My cottage is close at hand," said the bandit; "if you will take refuge within its walls, you will find me to be a true friend to the red rose."

The mother whispered to her son to take courage, and turning to the man, bade him lead the way. This he did, and soon a pretty woman emerged from a recess in a rock, near which was a slight cottage, built of gray stones, and covered with boughs.

"Marian," said the robber, "these are the Queen of England and her son."

The woman, greatly astonished, offered her hand to assist Margaret, saying,

"Your majesty will find but little comfort in our poor hut."

"We have been used to hardships lately," said the queen, "and care little whether our shelter is a cottage or a palace, so long as we can trust our hosts."

"Do not doubt me," said the robber; "although I am an outcast, I am a man. I am a friend to the red rose, and I here swear that I will defend Queen Margaret and her son."

"Believe him, gracious madam," said Marian; "he will protect you."

Assured, by these words, of the kind intentions of the robber, the queen entered the hut with her son, and passed several days there in quiet, Marian treating them with the greatest kindness. Meanwhile, the robber tried to find some means of escape for his distinguished guests. At last, he learned that a vessel was soon to sail from a port not far distant. Procuring two horses, the man early one morning mounted the queen upon one, and carrying the child before him upon the other, they set off for the sea-coast. This they gained in safety, and embarked in the ship for Flanders.

Here Margaret found many friends, and passed several years in retirement and peace.



THIS month is named from the Roman god, Janus, who was represented with two faces, one looking towards the old year, the other towards the new. Everybody invoked him, on commencing a new undertaking. From the time of Numa, 2d king of Rome, January began the religious year of the Romans. On its first day was presented to Janus an offering of wine and fruits; his idol was crowned with laurel; the consul, or chief magistrate, ascended in solemn procession to the capitol, and small presents were made to one another by friends. The most usual presents were figs and dates, covered with leaf-gold. Hence the agreeable modern custom of New Year's presents.

In England it is the custom to "ring out the old year," by tolling the bell at midnight, as if it were the "passing bell" at the funeral, when the old year is buried forever. In many parts of England it was customary for some of the prettiest girls to form themselves into a company, and walk in grand procession through the village, bearing a bowl of ale decked with garlands of flowers, &c., stopping now and then at the doors of their friends, wishing them health and a happy new year.

Shrubs and trees now have all their tender parts wrapped closely in buds varnished over with a lacquer which resists the utmost effort of the frost. Herbs die down to the root, and have a coverlet spread over them,

under which they are tucked up safe till spring. In kindness to them and us,

The cherished fields
Put on their winter robe of purest white.
'Tis brightness all, save when the new snow melts
Along the mazy current. Low the woods
Bow the hoar head; and, ere the languid sun,
Faint from the west, emits his evening ray,
Earth's universal face, deep hid and chill,
Is one wild dazzling waste, that buries wide
The works of man.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN JANUARY.

- 1, 1067. William the Conqueror crowned at Westminster.
1308. Swiss liberty originated with William Tell and his companions, who struck the blow; it was established, after a struggle of 300 years, in 1648.
1801. Union of Ireland with Great Britain.
- 5, 1539. Catharine de Medici died, after being the wife of one king and the mother of three.
With every vice, in fine, in woman born,
Striped of the virtues which their mind adorn.
- 6, Epiphany, or Twelfth Day, i. e., after Christmas, the day of the "manifestation," so the word means, of the Saviour to the Wise Men of the East. The Twelfth Day Cake and drawing for King and Queen is an ancient relic of the sports of Roman children.
- 6, 1657. Theophilus Eaton, 1st governor of Connecticut, died.
- 7, 1715. Fenelon, Abp. of Cambray, died.
- 8, 1701. The Prussian monarchy commenced.
- 8, 1815. The British defeated at the battle of New Orleans.
- 8, 1825. Eli Whitney, inventor of the cotton-gin, a benefactor of his country, died.



FEBRUARY.

FEBRUARY, too, got its name from the Romans, who had their general expiatory festival in it. In this festival the people were *purified*, which the Romans called *februati*, from the sins of the whole year. Shrove Tuesday seems thus to be named from "shriving" of sins.

On Candlemas day, (so called from the Mass of the Virgin Mary, in which lighted candles were borne in procession,) the rosemary, mistletoe, and other emblems of the merry Christmas time, were removed from the halls and windows of our English ancestors; and the Christmas brand, having been lighted and allowed to burn until sunset, was then quenched and preserved for the succeeding year.

Ash Wednesday has its name from the old ceremony of blessing ashes on that day, with which the priest signed the people on the forehead in the form of a cross, saying, "Remember ye are from dust, and must return to dust."

St. Valentine's day, the 14th, is called from a saint who is almost forgotten; his connection with the day's customs is quite forgotten. It used to be the practice for every gentleman to consider the first lady he met, on that day, as his sweetheart, or Valentine, to whom he was expected to make a present. The custom is now pretty much confined in this country to the young folks, — meaning all from — to — years of age, — to interchange anonymous letters, often adorned with pictures, and of an amorous or quizzical character.

In New England, February is generally our coldest month; and, from its clear, bright,

keen air, and merry sleigh-bells, decidedly the pleasantest of the winter.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN FEBRUARY.

- 3, Bishop Blaise. On this day the journey-men wool-combers, in different parts of England, have a grand procession, in commemoration of this renowned bishop, who is reported to have discovered the art of combing wool. He was martyred in 289 A. D.
1738. Sir Thomas Lombe, proprietor of the famous *Silk Mill*, died.
1761. Beau Nash, "King of Bath," leader of the fashions, died aged 88.
- 4, 1194. Richard I., Cœur de Lion, released and returns to England.
1555. John Rogers, first martyr, burnt at the stake.
- B.C. } Cato committed suicide to escape tyranny.
- 5, 45. }
1731. Roger Williams came to America, and brought the idea of perfect toleration in matters of conscience.
- 6, 1778. Treaty of Alliance, Amity and Commerce, between the U. S. and France, recognizing, first of the nations, American Independence.
- 1804. Rev. Dr. Priestley died.
- 1832. Qualla Battoo, in Sumatra, destroyed by the U. States.
- 8, 1587. Mary Queen of Scots beheaded by Elizabeth.
- 9, 1733. The settlement of Georgia, commenced by Oglethorpe.
- 11, 1823. De Witt Clinton, father of Internal Improvements, died.
- 12, 1832. Asiatic Cholera appeared in London.
- 13, 1728. Cotton Mather died, in Boston.
- 14, 1400. Richard II. died of hunger, thirst and cold.
- 1779. Captain Cook killed at Hawaii, Sandwich Islands.
- 16, 1754. Died, in England, Lindley Murray, a native of America, author of English Grammar.
- 1832. Jonathan Russell, Commissioner of Ghent, died.
- 17, 1563. Michael Angelo, the illustrious artist, died at Rome.
- 18, 1546. Martin Luther, the Reformer, died.
- 19, The Sun enters the Constellation Pisces.



MARCH.

MARCH gets its name from the rough, classical god, Mars; a name given it, it is said, by Romulus, who called himself the son of Mars; and when he divided the year into months, wished to name the first month of the year, which March anciently was, in honor of his reputed father.

St. David's day, the national festival of the Welsh, comes on the 1st March; and St. Patrick's day, the holiday of the Irish, on the 17th.

This was the month when the Romans began their comitia, or public meeting, just as in New England towns the first Monday in March is "Town meeting day," or "March meeting," for electing town officers, and arranging the general business of the year. It was thought by the ancients to be an unlucky month for marriage.

As the month advances,

Winter, still lingering on the verge of spring,
Retires reluctant, and from time to time
Looks back, while, at his keen and chilly breath,
Fair Flora sickens.

The great operations of nature during this month seem to be, to dry up the superabundant moisture, thereby preventing the roots and seeds from rotting in the earth; and gradually to bring forward the process of evolution in the swelling buds, whilst, at the same time, by the wholesome severity of chilling blasts, they are kept from a pre-

mature disclosure, which would expose their tender contents to injury from the yet unsettled season.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN MARCH.

- 1, 1711. The Spectator, the first Periodical Magazine, commenced.
- 2, 1791. John Wesley, the eminent Methodist, died.
- 3, 1832. Georgia disregarded the mandate of the Supreme Court.
- 5, 1770. British troops, stoned, fire upon the mob; "the Boston Massacre."
- 8, 1702. William III., the bulwark of constitutional liberty, died.
- 1803. Duke of Bridgewater, the "Father of Canals," died.
- 10, 1820. Died Benjamin West, native of Pennsylvania, Painter, Pres. Roy. Acad.
- 12, 1712. Queen Anne, of the British sovereigns, the last who touched for the scrofula.
- 13, 1807. Rev. Dr. Stillman, Baptist, died.
- 1832. Champollion, the famous discoverer of the Egyptian Hieroglyphics, died.
- 14, 1803. Klopstock, the sublim. German poet, died.
- 17, 493. St. Patrick died, at Saul Abbey, County Down, Ireland.
- 17, 1776. Washington drives the British from Boston.
- 21, 1556. Abp. Cranmer burnt, a martyr, by "Bloody Queen Mary."
- 22, 1758. Rev. Dr. Jonathan Edwards, the eminent divine, died.
1832. Goethe, the great German poet, died.
- 25, Before the alteration of the Style, the new year began on the 25th March, and in some ecclesiastical computations, that order is still preserved. It is called Lady Day, the festival of the Annunciation. The other three quarter days were June 24, Sept. 29, and Dec. 21.
1306. Robert Bruce crowned King of Scotland, at Scone.



THIS, too, is a Latin word, meaning "the Opener," for mother earth now opens her bosom for the production of vegetables, and buds open to disclose the leaflets and flowers. Some one says Spring is the busiest of all the seasons, and in the garden, the field, the wood, a new creation has now fully commenced, on the ruins of a former year. A walk into the country, in the beautiful budding season, is the highest happiness which a well regulated mind can enjoy; put a little knowledge of nature and her infinite operations into the mind, and the walk will become one of ever increasing interest and delight.

Easter-Monday is the workingman's holiday in the old country.

This month gives the most perfect image of spring; for, its vicissitudes of warm gleams of sunshine, and gentle showers, have the most powerful effects in hastening the universal springing of the vegetable tribe, whence the season has its name.

April generally begins with some unpleasant weather, and is on the whole a moody month, — well painted by the poet: —

Mindful of disaster past,
And shrinking at the northern blast,
The sleety storm returning still,
The morning hoar, the evening chill,
Reluctant comes the timid spring;
Scarce a bee, with airy ring,
Murmurs the blossomed boughs around
That clothe the garden's southern bound;
Scarce a sickly straggling flower
Dares to deck the sheltered bower.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN APRIL.

- 1, 1405. Tamerlane, the conqueror of Western Asia, died.
- 1, 1810. Napoleon married to Maria Louisa.
- 3, 33. THE CRUCIFIXION.
1826. Reginald Heber, Bp. of Calcutta, died.
- 4, 1774. Oliver Goldsmith, the writer of pure English, died.
- 5, 33. THE RESURRECTION.
- 5, 1676. John Winthrop, Governor of Connecticut, died.
- 5, 1811. Raikes, the founder of Sunday Schools, died.
- 6, 1695. Bushy, the famous schoolmaster, died, aged 89.
- 7, 1831. Revolution in Brazil, Pedro II. made emperor.
- 8, 1341. Petrarch, the poet, crowned with laurel, at Rome.
- 9, 1492. Lorenzo the Magnificent died at Florence.
1626. Died the famous Lord Bacon.
- 10, 1752. Cheselden, the eminent surgeon, died, at Bath, England.
1829. The Catholic Relief Bill passed in Parliament of England.
- 11, 1814. Napoleon abdicated the gov. of France.
- 12, 1765. Edward Young, the poet, died.
- 14, 1759. George Fred. Handel, the great musician, died in England.
1828. Joseph Burr, the philanthropist, died at Manchester, Vt.
- 15, 1632. Lord Baltimore, Catholic, died; he settled Maryland on principles of perfect religious toleration, as the Baptist, R. Williams, did Rhode Island.
- 16, 1746. The horrible battle of Culloden, Scotland.
"Culloden, that reeks with the blood of the brave."
1789. Buffon, the great French naturalist, died.
- 17, 1790. Franklin died, at Phila., aged 84.
- 18, 1802. Dr. Darwin, the poet, physician, and "temperance man," died.
- 19, 1775. Skirmish at Lexington.
1804. Haytien massacre of whites commences.
- 19, 1824. Lord Byron, the poet, died, in Greece.
- 21, 1616. Shakespeare and Cervantes died.
- 25, 1595. Tasso, the great Italian poet, died.



THIS month, also, was named by the first king of Rome, Romulus, some say in compliment to his senators, who were Mayores, "elders," others say in honor of the goddess Maia, the mother of Jupiter's son Mercury.

The festival of Flora, the goddess of flowers, was celebrated by the Romans on the last days of April and first of May. She was a very ancient deity of Italy, long before the Romans. Throughout the world, in fact, from the earliest times, some festival, generally connected with religion, was got up in the spring, to express the joy inspired by the flowers. Nothing more natural, nothing more pleasing, than such a celebration, — only, more northerly climates would enjoy May-day best, if it was the *last* day of May rather than the *first*.

Time was when May-day, with its May-pole, &c., was looked forward to by all ranks, classes and ages, as one especially devoted to sport and merriment. Chaucer, in his "Court of Love," says, early on the 1st of May, "fourth goth at the court, both most and lest, to fetch the flowris freshe and branche and blome." Henry VIII. and his queen are described as going to "Shooter's Hill, where they were met by Robin Hood and his archers bold, (personated by two hundred of the king's guard,) who, after discharges of arrows, invited the royal party to see their mode of life. Accordingly, amid the blowing of horns, the king, queen and suite accompanied them unto the wood under the

hill, where an arbor of green boughs received them, having a hall, great chamber and inner chamber, the floors being covered with flowers and sweet herbs." Here they took wine and venison, as the only food outlaws could offer. On their return they were met by two ladies, representing Lady May and Lady Flora, both richly apparelled, riding in an open chariot drawn by five horses, on each of which sat a lady.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN MAY.

- 1, 304. The Roman emperor Dioclesian resigned his crown.
1807. The Slave Trade proscribed in Parliament.
- 2, 1519. Leonardo Da Vinci, the illustrious Italian painter, died.
1804. British and Foreign Bible Society formed.
- 3, 1784. Anthony Benet, the philanthropist, died, in Philadelphia.
- 5, 1821. Napoleon, ex-emperor of France, died.
- 8, 1806. Robert Morris, the financial savior of his country, died.
1816. American Bible Society formed.
- 9, 1810. Maj. Gen. B. Lincoln, Hingham, died.
- 13, 1607. First permanent settlement in the Old Thirteen States, made at Jamestown, Va.
- 15, 1832. The great naturalist, Cuvier, died.
- 17, 1727. Catharine I., of Russia, died.
- 18, 1804. Napoleon declared Emperor of France, crowned Dec. 2.
- 19, 1778. The Dark Day in the Northern States.
- 20, 1506. Columbus died, at Valladolid, Spain.
- 24, 1814. The Pope restored, entered Rome.
- 26, 1817. William Phillips, the philanthropist, died, in Boston.
- 27, 1764. Calvin, the great reformer, died, at Geneva.
- 29, 1453. Constantinople taken by the Turks. Commencement of Modern History.



JUNE.

THIS loveliest month of all our year is said to have been named by King Romulus, in compliment to the young men, *juniores*, who fought his battles. Haying and shearing are its merry toils.

Corpus Christi day, the middle of June, is observed in Roman Catholic countries with great festivity. The streets are decked with garlands of flowers, tapestry is hung from the windows and balconies, lamps are suspended before the doors at dark, and joyous bands of musicians parade the cities from morn till night.

Midsummer day, or John Baptist's day, is about the time of the summer solstice, when the days are at the longest. This has always been a day of religious festival, even among Pagans, connected as their religious observances generally were with astronomical epochs. Thus our Saxon forefathers lighted bonfires with various superstitious ceremonies on this day.

It continued long a custom in England, at Midsummer Eve, as soon as the sun disappeared, to light bonfires and commence a night of gayety and rejoicing. One of the pleasantest and most enchanting of Shakespeare's plays is the "Midsummer Night's Dream." Among other superstitions, the following "trial of affection" was practised. The maiden gathers, precisely at midnight of St. John's or Midsummer Eve, some of the branches of the orpine plant, or "Midsummer's Men," two of which she places side by side against the wall, when she goes to bed; if the branches fall towards each other, her lover will be faithful; but if they recede, he is false.

At Little Dunmow, in Essex, England,

since 1445, a flitch of bacon is given on the 20th of June to any couple, who, kneeling on two sharp stones in the churchyard, shall make oath that for *a year and a day* after their marriage, they have not once repented of it, nor had any brawls, nor offended each other. The flitch was last claimed in 1751, by John Shakeshanks and his wife.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN JUNE.

- 1, 1832. General T. Sumter, the celebrated revolutionary partisan, died, aged 97.
- 2, 1811. Christophe and Marie Louise crowned King and Queen of Hayti.
- 6, 1799. Patrick Henry, the orator, died.
- 7, 1329. Robert Bruce, vindicator of Scottish liberty, died.
- 1819. Rev. Dr. Samuel Worcester, missionary, died.
- 1832. Jeremy Bentham, the civil reformer, died.
- 8, 1814. Chief Justice Sewall died.
- 9, 1832. The Asiatic Cholera first appeared in North America, at Montreal and Quebec.
- 11, 1798. Malta, the key of the Levant, taken by Napoleon.
- 12, 1381. Wat Tyler's insurrection.
- 13, 1483. Five noblemen beheaded by Richard III., then Protector.
- 1625. Charles I. married to Henrietta Maria, youngest daughter of Henry IV.
- 14, 1800. Battle of Marengo, in Italy; Napoleon defeats the Austrians.
- 15, 1775. George Washington appointed Commander-in-Chief.
- 16, 1830. An eruption of Etna destroyed eight villages.
- 17, 1685. James II. committed the seven Bishops to the Tower.
- 1696. Died John Sobieski, King of Poland, who saved Europe from the Tartars.
- 1775. Bunker Hill battle.
- 18, Great festival of the murderous idol Juggernaut, in India, celebrated with an enormous car, under the wheels of which devotees are crushed.
- 1815. Battle of Waterloo, Europe against France.



JULY.

JULY is said to have been so named in compliment to Julius Cæsar, the Roman emperor, who corrected the calendar. It is the hottest month of the year, and the insect tribes are now peculiarly active and vigorous. All the flowers of June soon lose their beauty, shrivel and fall, and their stalks become dry. Many plants, however, do not flower till July; these are, particularly, the aromatic; the succulent, or thick-leaved; several of the aquatic, and of those called compound-flowered, in which many florets are collected into one head, as the thistle, sow thistle, hawkweed, &c. The lily is one of the principal ornaments of gardens this month; and, with its delicate white flowers, gives an agreeable sensation of coolness to the eye.

July 15th is Saint Swithin's day; he desired to be buried "where the drops of rain might wet his grave," and the attempt to remove his bones into a church was prevented by forty days' rain. Hence, according to the logic of superstition, if it rain on July 15th, it will rain for forty days.

Bathing and angling are the amusements of this month, and lounging beneath the grateful shade. All animated nature languidly breaks forth with the poet,

Welcome, ye shades! ye bowery thickets, hail!
Ye lofty pines! ye venerable oaks!
Ye ashes wild, resounding o'er the steep!
Delicious is your shelter to the soul.

Over a great part of our broad country may now be seen, amid teeming fields,

In formed array
The reapers move, nor shrink from heat or toil
By emulation urged. Others, dispersed,
Or bind in sheaves, or load, or guide the wain
That tinkles as it passes.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN JULY.

- 2, 1794. Died, Diderot, the French poet, infidel, and author of the infidel Dictionnaire Encyclopedique, in connection with D'Alembert and Voltaire.
 - 3, 987. Capet, first of his dynasty, crowned King of France.
 - 4, 1776. Declaration of the Independence of the U. S.
 - 1803. Fisher Ames, the distinguished orator, died at Dedham.
 - 1826. John Adams and Tho. Jefferson, patriots, died.
 - 1830. James Monroe, fifth president of U. S., died.
 - 1832. The Cholera Spasmodica first appeared in New York city.
 - 5, 1100. Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders, and all its inhabitants massacred.
 - 6, 1189. Henry II., greatest prince of his time, died, cursing his children and his own existence.
 - 6, 1535. Chancel. Sir T. More beheaded for denying Henry VIII. to be sup. head of the church.
 - 8, 1533. Ariosto, the Italian poet, died at Ferrara.
 - 1721. Elihu Yale, founder of Yale College, died in Wales.
 - 1797. Edmund Burke, the orator, died.
 - 9, 1497. Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, to India.
 - 1755. Braddock's defeat and Washington's masterly conduct.
 - 1816. Buenos Ayres proclaims her independence.
 - 13, 1793. Marat assassinated by Charlotte Corday.
 - 14, 1789. The Bastile prison at Paris destroyed.
 - 15, 1817. Madame de Stael, the distinguished authoress, died at Paris.
- The "Three Glorious Days of July," in which occurred a revolution in France, which was conducted with such a dignified moderation, as secured the respect of the world. It placed Louis Philippe on the throne.

29

30

31

1830.



AUGUST.

AUGUST had its name from the second Cæsar, Octavius, who took the appellation of "*Augustus*," venerable, august. Most kinds of grain, in temperate climates, ripen in this month, and it was therefore called, by our Saxon ancestors, harvest month. The crop, so liable to damage when standing, now fairly housed, and his anxieties over,

Inwardly smiling, the proud farmer views
The rising pyramids that grace his yard,
And counts his large increase; his barns are stored,
And groaning saddles bend beneath their load.

The 1st of August is Lammas day, some say from the Saxon Hlaf-masse, or loaf-feast, their name for a thanksgiving feast to God for the first fruit of the soil; bread of the new wheat was the thank-offering. Others say it is the festival of the Druid priests of our heathen progenitors, called La-ee-mas, in which the people made offerings of part of the produce of their fields, in return for an abundant harvest. Similar festivals of gratitude have been held by all nations in all ages. We hold our thanksgiving in November.

Lammas day, Martinmas, Candlemas, and Whitsuntide, were the old "quarter-days;" Lady day, Midsummer, Michaelmas, and Christmas, are the present "quarter-days."

Harvest-home was a festival of our fathers, and it is still kept up in some southern counties of England; there is as much feasting and revelry, though in vastly better taste, as there was in the "good old times," when the last cart, ornamented with garlands of flowers, was the centre of an unruly dance of the male and female laborers, resembling the wild orgies paid by a heathen people to their most favored idol;

and when the farm-house echoed the boisterous halloo and pointless jest of its inebriated inmates. Shall we mourn that such scenes are succeeded by calmer enjoyments?

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN AUGUST.

- 1, 1498. Columbus discovered the *main land* of America.
- 1790. French fleet destroyed at Aboukir, Egypt.
- 2, 1783. Gainsborough, the celebrated landscape and portrait painter, died.
- 3, 1492. Columbus sailed from Palos, Spain, to discover a New World.
- 1792. Arkwright, the inventor of cotton machinery, died.
- 4, 1598. Burleigh, Queen Elizabeth's minister for forty years, died. He was "prayed for by the poor, honored by the rich, feared by the bad, and loved by the good."
- 7, 1485. The Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII., landed in England.
- 1804. The China fleet arrived in England, after beating off a French force, said to have been superior. It had eight millions sterling value, and occasioned great rejoicing.
- 1830. Louis Philippe enthroned by the French deputies.
- 10, 1675. The Royal Observatory, Greenwich, begun, by order of Charles II.
- 1792. Louis XVth's Swiss guards butchered by the mob at the Tuileries, Paris.
- 12, 1676. Philip of Pokanoket, "King Philip," shot.
- 13, 1667. Bishop Jeremy Taylor died.
- 14, 1457. The first printed book, the Book of Psalms, openly published.
- 15, 1769. Napoleon born, at Ajaccio, in Corsica.
- 16, 1777. Battle of Bennington gained by Stark.
- 20, 1672. The excellent and patriotic John De Witt torn in pieces by a mob, at the Hague. "A most discouraging example to lovers of liberty."
- 22, 1485. Battle of Bosworth Field, in which Richard III. was slain.
- 25, 1770. The wretched Chatterton, poet, died by arsenic.
- 28, 1794. Robespierre, the tyrant demagogue, executed.
- 31, 1689. John Bunyan, author of *Pilgrim's Progress*, died.



WHEN the year began in March, as it used to in old times, this month was the seventh, and so it got its Latin name, *septem*, or seven, from the Romans.

Michaelmas — “the feast of Michael” — comes on the 29th of this month, and was, anciently, one of the quarter-days, and is still in some use in England and Scotland.

In those southern climates where the heat and want of moisture are not too great for the growth of corn, the only care of the farmer is to procure hands sufficient to reap it. The heat of the sun and air soon dries the straw, and hardens the grain. A spot is levelled in the field, and the corn is threshed out immediately, either by the tread of cattle driven over it, or by the flails of numerous threshers. The corn is winnowed, and stored in granaries; and the straw is reserved till winter, when it forms the chief fodder of horses and cattle. In these regions the harvest is a continued feast; no ungenial weather disappoints the hopes of the husbandman.

But in northern climates, where the harvest is later, and cold rains and storms are frequent in autumn, ingenuity is often taxed to save the corn from being entirely spoiled, after it has been severed from the ground; roomy barns are erected to secure it, in the straw, till it can be threshed; and the joy of the harvest is frequently interrupted by the anxiety which is the consequence of sudden changes of the weather.

Grain stored in the straw, in the open air, is found to be better preserved than in

barns; and the use of stone or cast-iron pillars, to support the floors for the stacks, secures it from vermin and from wet. So that on many farms the only barn needed is a small one for threshing.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN SEPTEMBER.

- 1, 5508. The day of Creation; so some; others place it on 19th Sept., 4004; others differently.
- 1159. Died Pope Adrian IV., the only Englishman ever made pope.
- 1715. Louis XIV. died.
- 2, 1752. The New Style was adopted at London, by retrenching eleven days from the calendar, the ensuing day, Sept. 3, being reckoned the 14th.
- 1792. The “Septembrizeurs” broke open the prisons of Paris, and butchered all the state prisoners in the most brutal manner.
- 3, 1653. Oliver Cromwell, Lord High Protector of England, died.
- 4, 1566. Solymán the Magnificent, Emperor of Turkey, died.
- 6, 1620. The Plymouth Pilgrims sailed, in the Mayflower, from England.
- 7, 1812. Battle of the Borodino.
- 13, 1598. Philip II., the despotic and cruel bigot, died.
- 14, 1812. Moscow burnt by the Russians.
- 19, 1781. Battle of Eutaw Springs, Greene against Stewart.
- 21, 1832. Sir Walter Scott, the novelist and poet, died at Abbotsford.
- 25, 1815. Copley, the painter, a native of Massachusetts, died in London.
- 29, 1560. Gustavus Vasa, deliverer of Sweden, died.
- 1723. Expired, in her eighty-seventh year, the venerable Lady Russell.
1827. Captain Parry, from his Arctic, and Captain Franklin, from his North American expedition, arrived at the British Admiralty within half an hour of each other.
- 30, 1770. Whitefield, the celebrated preacher, died at Newburyport.



OCTOBER.

THIS month, too, being the eighth from March, was called October by the Romans, from the Latin word *octo*, "eight." It is chosen, on account of its even temperature, for brewing malt liquor designed for long keeping, hence called "old October." In most of the wine-countries of Europe the vintage takes place in this month. It is usually in October that the beehives are despoiled of their honey; but most people, of any thrift, use boxes, which save destroying the bees. Winter fruit is packed away in this month, particularly apples and pears, and the following are the different modes:

1. In single layers on the bare shelves of a fruit-room.
2. Ditto, covered with light canvass, occasionally taken off and dried.
3. In close drawers.
4. In dry casks, without any interposing material; must be picked over carefully a few weeks after.
5. In boxes, casks, large garden-pots, or jars, with pure and dry sand interposed.
6. In jars without sand, the top covered with a slate, and the jar buried in dry sand.
7. In heaps, in a dry, airy loft, slightly covered with straw, to protect from frost.
8. In baskets lined with straw.
9. In close cellars, shutting out light, always injurious.
10. In dark but airy vaults.
11. Under a bell-glass, cemented down, air-tight, on stone.
12. Buried in a box placed upon four bricks, under another box inverted, its

- top two feet below the surface.
13. In threshed grain, or in corn-stacks.
14. Laying on wheat-straw, with or without a covering of the same.
15. In chaff of wheat or oats.
16. In flaxseed chaff.
17. In powdered charcoal.
18. Each apple or pear wrapped in a dry, separate paper.
19. In dried fern-leaves.
20. To preserve nuts and walnuts, pack them in glazed earthen jars, throwing a little salt on the last layer, and close the jar.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN OCTOBER.

- 1, 1795. Died, in England, Robert Bakewell, the celebrated improver of domestic animals.
- 2, 1780. Major André was executed as a spy.
- 3, 1690. Robert Barclay died.
- 5, 1813. Tecumseh, the Indian chief, killed.
- 7, 1571. Battle of Lepanto, Greece; the Venetians defeated the Turkish fleet, killing 30,000.
- 8, 1793. John Hancock, signer of the Declaration of Independence, died.
- 10, 1831. Hereditary Peerage decided against by the French deputies.
- 11, 1631. Zuingle, the reformer, slain in battle.
- 12, 1492. Columbus discovers the first land of the New World.
- 14, 1066. Battle of Hastings, which expelled Harold from the throne of England, and gave it to William I.
- 17, 1777. Burgoyne surrendered a British army to Gates, at Saratoga.
- 26, 1751. Rev. Dr. Philip Doddridge expired at Lisbon.
- 30, 1813. Died, Theophilus Parsons, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.



This being the ninth month from March, which formerly began the year, the Romans called it from their word *novem*, "nine." October is marked for the *change*, November for the *fall* of the leaf, which now

Incessant rustles from the mournful grove;
Oft startling such as, studious, walk below;
And slowly circles through the waving air.

Forth goes the woodman, leaving unconcerned
The cheerful haunts of men, to wield the axe
And drive the wedge, in yonder forest drear,
From morn to eve his solitary task.

The farmer strives during this month to finish all his ploughing of fallows; and then lays up his utensils till the ensuing year. Cattle and horses are taken out of the exhausted pastures, and kept in the house or yard. Hogs are put up to fatten. Sheep are turned into the turnip-field, or, in stormy weather, fed with hay at the rick. Bees now require to be moved under shelter; and the pigeons in the dove-house to be fed.

Where, now, the vital energy that moved,
While summer was, the pure and subtle lymph
Through th' imperceptible meandering veins
Of leaf and flower? It sleeps; and th' icy touch
Of unprolific winter has impressed
A cold stagnation on th' intestine tide.

Towards the close of the month, when the products of the earth are safe, the heart rises in thankfulness to the Giver of all good; and now most appropriately comes "Thanksgiving," emphatically the American Rural Festival.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN NOVEMBER.

- 1, 1783. Linnæus, the great Swedish naturalist, died.
- All Saints day.
- 2, 1818. Sir Samuel Romilly, the reformer of the severity of the English criminal code, died.
- 3, 1775. St. John's, Canada, taken by the Americans.
- 4, 1794. London Missionary Society's first meeting.
- 1814. Union of Norway and Sweden.
- 5, 1807. Died at Rome, Angelica Kauffman, a distinguished artist.
- 6, 1632. Gustavus Adolphus, bulwark of Protestantism, killed at Lutzen.
- The day for the election of President.
- 7, 1665. The first Gazette in England published at Oxford.
- 1781. The last public burning of a heretic by the Inquisition: a woman, at Seville. Its secret persecutions are said to be still continued.
- 9, Lord Mayor's day, London; the great Metropolitan Festival.
- 10, 1832. Spurzheim, the phrenologist, died in Boston.
- 12, 1819. Jesse Appleton, D.D., president of Bowdoin College, died.
- 13, 1680. Geo. Fox, founder of the Society of Friends, died.
- 14, 1832. Charles Carroll, the sole surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, died.
- 15, 1635. Old Parr died, in England, aged 152 years and 9 months.
- 16, 1831. Wellington ministry, England, resigned.
- 17, 1307. The founders of Swiss liberty met at Grutli.
- 18, 1518. Cortez sailed from Cuba to conquer Mexico.
- 21, 1579. Sir T. Gresham, London, died, and left funds for Gresham College, with 7 professors.
- 22, The Sun enters the constellation Sagittarius.
- 24, 1572. Expired at Edinburgh, John Knox, the Scotch reformer.
- 25, 1748. Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts died.
- 26, 1504. Isabella, wife of Ferdinand, King of Spain, died.
- 1703. The "Great Storm" in England began.
- 29, 1778. Savannah taken.
- 30, 1667. The celebrated Dean Swift died.
- 1812. Mrs. Harriet Newell, the missionary, died.



DECEMBER

DECEM means ten, and the month being the tenth from March, was therefore named December. This is the month for in-door occupations and the quiet joys of home. —

Home, the source of every pleasure,
Home with every blessing crowned.

Several of the wild quadrupeds now take to their winter concealments, which they quit seldom, or not at all, till spring.

The mosses put forth their singular and minute parts of fructification, or flowers, during the winter months; and offer a most curious spectacle to the botanist, at a time when all the rest of nature is dead to him.

The Roman country people kept the feast of the goddess Vacuna, in the open fields, at the latter end of the month, having gathered their fruits and sown their corn. Hence, some say, came the "harvest-home."

The farmer now looks well to keep all snug and comfortable within doors, both for the family in the house and that in the barn.

On the twenty-first of December happens the winter solstice, or standing of the sun a few days, before he begins to work towards the northern signs again. This period, also, when the year begins to renew itself, has been chosen, by the priests of all nations in all ages, for a religious festival. The Christian church has appropriately marked it for the celebration, on the twenty-fifth of this month, of the most worthy of all events, the birth of the Saviour. The feelings of gratitude and hope, awakened by remem-

brance of the glad tidings announced to the shepherds of Bethlehem, naturally connect themselves in our hearts with thanksgiving for the fruits of the year, and faith in the returning energies of nature to combat the gloom of her apparent death and burial. The Christmas festival will, therefore, be kept as long as there is a crop to be reaped or a seed to be sown, a pleasant reminiscence of the past, enjoyment in the present, or hope for the future.

Thus the poet Spencer says: —

And after him came next the chill December;
Yet he, through merry feasting that he made,
And great bonfires, did not the cold remember,
His Saviour's birth so much his mind did glad.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN DECEMBER.

- 1, 1797. Died, Oliver Wolcott, LL.D., governor of Connecticut, and a stern patriot.
- 1825. Alexander, Emperor of Russia, died at Taganrog.
- 2, 1804. Napoleon anointed and crowned Emperor of the French, by the pope, Pius VII.
- 3, 1823. The able traveller, Belzoni, died.
- 7, 1683. Algernon Sidney beheaded.
- 1815. The American Education Society organized.
- 9, 1608. Milton born, at London.
- 11, 1282. Llewellyn, last of the Welsh sovereigns, was slain.
- 14, 1799. His country clad in mourning at the death of George Washington.
- 15, 1814. Celebrated Hartford Convention met.
- 17, 1831. The Liberator Bolivar expired.
- 22, 1620. Forefathers' Day, on which the Pilgrims founded the solid character of New England on the rock of Plymouth.
- 22, The Sun enters the constellation Capricorn.



WILLIAM TELL.

ABOUT the beginning of the fourteenth century, Rodolf of Hapsburg, Emperor of Germany, having died, his son Albert succeeded him. The known disregard of Albert for the established rights of towns and districts caused such apprehensions, that the people of the three central districts of Switzerland, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden held a general assembly, at which they swore to be faithful to each other against every aggressor. After mutual messages, asking the usual protection on one side, and an evasive answer on the other, Albert sent Gesler, as governor, who, contrary to custom, took up his abode in the country, at a fortress erected by himself in the district of Uri. The tolls were now raised, the most venial fault punished with imprisonment and the severest penalties, and the people treated with haughty insolence and contempt.

Wearied by a thousand acts of petty tyranny, three patriots were in the habit of assembling, at a central spot, to concert

measures of deliverance. On the 17th Nov., 1307, each of the three brought ten others, and the little band, with hands uplifted to the starry firmament, swore to live and die for the rights of the injured people. They fixed on the night of the new year to commence their enterprise.

Gesler, whose evil conscience did not allow him to repose, fancied the people had a more confident air, and walked abroad with a haughtier look, and that something must be plotting. He accordingly, to test his suspicions, caused the ducal hat of Austria to be fixed on a pole, and commanded that every one should honor it by bowing as he passed before it. He thus expected to ascertain who was an enemy of Austria.

It happened that William Tell, the cross-bowman of Burglen, and one of the men who had taken the oath above mentioned, and bore a part in the nightly meetings, passed before this symbol of Austrian tyranny, but without paying the required homage.

He was instantly seized and conducted to the governor, who, informed of his skill in archery, sentenced him to shoot an apple from the head of his son. The boy having been bound, and an apple placed on his head, they led Tell to a considerable distance off:—he took his aim—the twang of the bowstring was heard—the joyful shouts of the people proclaimed that the arrow had hit the apple!

A second arrow fell from beneath the folds of the tunic of the matchless archer. "Why hast thou brought a second arrow?" growled the tyrant Gesler. "To slay thee, also, monster, had I slain my son!" cried the intrepid father, no longer able to control his indignation and contempt.

Upon this Tell was seized, and put on

board a boat, to be carried out of Uri, imprisoned and further punished. Though it was blowing a gale, Gesler, fearing a rescue, embarked at once with him. The storm increased till the boat became unmanageable. As the only expedient to save the lives of the party, Tell, whose well known skill as a boatman was second only to that in archery, was unbound, and the helm put into his hand. He steered straight for the bare and rugged declivity of Axenberg, where a ledge of rock projects a few paces into the lake. Arrived at this spot, he sprang from the boat, and escaped up the mountain, but not till he had sent an unerring arrow, which quivered in the life blood of Gesler, and freed the Swiss Cantons from their tyrant.



FAIRIES.

ALMOST all ignorant nations have a belief in the existence of spiritual beings who dwell upon the earth, mingling more or less in the affairs of mortals, sometimes for good, and sometimes for evil. Of all these creations of the imagination, the fairies are perhaps the most pleasing.

It is not easy to say what country is entitled to the credit of having given birth to the fairies. It appears that we derive them from the east. The Persians call them *Peris*, and the Arabians *Gins*. Under these names they figure largely in oriental romances.

The belief in fairies has been very common in Europe; and, even at the present

day, persons may be found in Ireland, Wales, and Scotland, who have a strong faith in their existence.

Fairies are generally described as spirits of both sexes, in human shape, who are fabled to haunt houses in companies, to reward cleanliness, to dance and revel in meadows in the night-time, and to play a thousand freakish pranks. They are represented as clothed in green, and the traces of their tiny feet are supposed to remain visible on the grass for a long time after their dances; these are still called *fairy rings* or *circles*. They are also fabled to be in the practice of stealing infants, and leaving their own progeny in their stead.

Beside these terrestrial fairies, there was imagined to be a species who dwelt in the mines, where they were often heard to imitate the actions of the workmen, to whom they were thought to be inclined to do a service. In Wales, this kind of fairies were called "knockers," and were said to point out the rich veins of silver and lead. Some fairies are fabled to have resided in wells. It was also believed that there was a sort of domestic fairies, called, from their sun-

burnt complexions, "brownies," who were extremely useful, and who performed all sorts of domestic drudgery.

Although the belief in fairies has generally faded away, they continue to live in books, and to perform their feats, for the amusement of readers, young and old. In America, they have never been supposed to flourish; yet an author has now and then ventured to transport them hither upon the wings of fancy.



THE CHIEFS OF SCINDE.

SCINDE is one of the numerous kingdoms of India, and lies chiefly upon a delta between two branches of the great river Indus. Under the pacific sway of the Moguls, it was highly flourishing, yielding abundant crops of rice, sugar, indigo, and cotton. Tattah, one of its cities, was then one of the greatest emporiums of the east. A century since, it had 40,000 weavers. It is now reduced to 20,000 inhabitants; its streets are narrow and dirty, and the greater part of the houses are but structures of cane and mud. Everything wears the aspect of decay and ruin. Tattah is only a sample of the desolating effects of misgovernment in this country, which, like most others in India,

seems given up to every species of oppression, either from native princes, or foreign usurpation.

In many respects the Scindians resemble the Hindoos. They are now subject to rapacious chiefs, or Ameers. These have converted large tracts of the finest land in the country into thickets of jungle, only with a view to afford the amusement of hunting. These persons have amassed immense treasures—they have many jewels of the finest kind, and their muskets and sabres are ornamented with choice gems. The Scindians have lately carried on a fierce war with the British, in which they have showed great military skill and power.



PAUL, THE APOSTLE.

THE apostle Paul was certainly one of the most remarkable men that ever lived. He was of the tribe of Benjamin, a native of Tarsus, in Cilicia, and originally of the sect of Pharisees. His parents sent him to Jerusalem, where he studied under a famous Jewish doctor, called Gamaliel. He was an apt scholar, and became very strict in the observance of the Mosaic law, with its rites and ceremonies. He was of a rigid and zealous temper, and could not bear the Christians, who had now begun to exercise their religion. When Stephen was stoned to death, Paul stood by and took care of the clothes of those who performed the execution. In the persecutions which followed, he took a leading part, and, breathing forth threatenings and slaughter, went from city to city, stirring up the people and magistrates against the Christians. These he caused to be seized, beaten, and imprisoned. Some he compelled even to blaspheme the name of Jesus, which he hated and despised.

But, as he was going to the city of Damascus, to fulfil his schemes of vengeance, he was miraculously converted to Christianity, and subsequently became the most distinguished of all the apostles in disseminating the religion of Jesus. His character seemed totally changed; his harshness and

cruelty of disposition were replaced by piety, meekness, patience, and every Christian virtue. The fiery persecutor thus became the humble, devoted, patient minister of the gospel.

All the other apostles were men quite destitute of education, and appear to have possessed no extraordinary talent. Paul was a learned scholar, and was of a high order of genius. In person he was small and stooping; his appearance was not imposing, and his voice was weak. In old age he was gray and bald. His eyes are said to have been weak, and his nose aquiline. Yet, with all his defects and infirmities, such were the force of his mind and the power of his eloquence, that he made a deep impression upon the age in which he lived, and has ever since been placed at the head of those men commissioned by our Saviour to preach his doctrine.

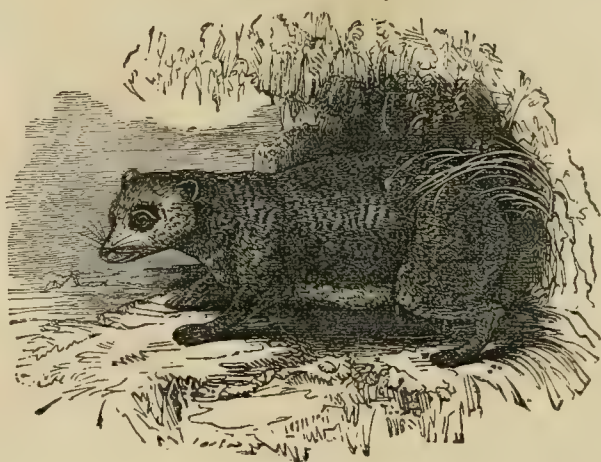
After his conversion, Paul devoted himself earnestly to the spreading of the gospel. He visited various places in Judea, Syria, and Asia Minor, meeting with extraordinary adventures. He was exposed to dangers, hardships, and sufferings, which no missionary of the present day would feel himself competent to endure. He suffered hunger and thirst, cold and nakedness, fastings,

washings, and fatigue from long journeys on foot. He was often near death, either from the assaults of enemies, or the attacks of thieves, or accidents upon the land, or exposures in deserts. He was twice flogged with rods, by the Romans; five times received thirty-nine lashes, from the Jews; and was three times shipwrecked upon the sea. In one instance, he was a whole day and night struggling and swimming in the waves.

It is quite wonderful to follow the travels of Paul, and to observe his activity, his diligence, and his devotion. Wherever he went, he preached the gospel, and made many converts. In one instance, he was at Athens, then filled with the most learned philosophers in the world. He disputed with them, and being arrested and brought before a high court, called *Areopagus*, he made a most eloquent defence.

Paul was at length charged by the Jews with misconduct, and was sent to Rome, to be tried. He sailed in a ship, upon the Mediterranean, but being wrecked at Malta, he staid there three months. He then went on to Rome. He was allowed to go about the city, but he had a soldier chained to him, for the purpose of keeping him from making his escape. After a time, he was set at liberty. He preached the gospel in various parts of Italy, and it is supposed in Spain also. He afterwards went to Asia, and then returned to Rome, where he is said to have been put to death, under the Emperor Nero, A. D. 65.

The writings of Paul were numerous, and those which are preserved in the New Testament constitute a remarkable portion of the sacred writings.



THE CONEY.

THIS curious little animal, confined to Eastern countries, furnishes the sacred proverbialist with a striking illustration: "The coneys are a feeble folk, yet make their houses in the rock."

Bruce, the traveller in Africa, says "The coney does not burrow and make holes, as the rat and rabbit, nature having interdicted it this practice, by furnishing it with feet which are round, and of a soft, pulpy, tender substance. The fleshy part of the toes projects beyond the nails, which are rather broad than sharp, very similar to a man's nails, ill-grown, and these appear rather given for the defence of the sharp toes, than

for any active use in digging, to which they are by no means adapted.

"The total length, as it sits, is seventeen inches and a quarter. It has no tail, and gives, at first sight, the idea of a rat rather than of any other creature. The color is grey mixed with reddish-brown, and on the belly white. All over the body are scattered hairs, strong and polished; these are, for the most part, two inches and a quarter in length. The ears are round, not pointed. The upper jaw is longer than the other. It lives upon grain, fruit, and roots, and certainly chews the cud."



THE PRINCESS ROSETTA.

THOUGH the belief in fairies is gone, we must not forget that our ancestors held them to be realities. If we would understand the history of the human mind and of past ages, we must see what ideas prevailed. We therefore give a celebrated fairy story of by-gone days, and which, no doubt, has given a great deal of pleasure, even though it be a fiction.

Once upon a time, — if fairy tales are all true, — the King of Bantam had two sons and a daughter. The queen consulted the fairies, to know what would be the fortune of her daughter, who was named Rosetta, and who was very beautiful. The fairies were unwilling to tell her; but at last they replied, "We fear that Rosetta will bring great misfortune upon her brothers, and even cause their death."

The king and queen were much grieved to hear this; and, after deliberating long upon the matter, they shut their daughter up in a lofty tower, where they thought

she could do harm to nobody. When she was fifteen years old, both her parents died. Her elder brother took possession of the throne of Bantam; and, as he knew nothing of the prophecy of the fairies, he opened the tower, and set his sister at liberty.

When Rosetta came out of the tower, and saw the fine gardens of the palace filled with flowers, fruits, and fountains, she was overwhelmed with astonishment and delight, for she had never seen anything of the kind before. Her little dog, Fretillon, who had only one ear, and was as green as a parrot, ran capering before her, quite as much delighted as his mistress. All at once, he ran into a thicket, where the princess followed him, and came suddenly upon a large peacock, a bird which, of course, she had never seen before.

Rosetta, seeing this magnificent bird, with its broad tail spread out to the sun, and glittering with a hundred golden eyes,

was struck with surprise and astonishment. She had never conceived of a thing half so beautiful, and for a long time could not take her eyes from it. The king and the queen, when they came up, inquired the cause of her amazement. She showed them the peacock, and asked what it was. They told her that it was a bird, and that it was sometimes killed and eaten. "What!" she exclaimed, "do they ever kill and eat so beautiful a bird? I declare to you that I never will marry any one but the King of the Peacocks. I shall then be the peacock queen, and I will take care that no more of these pretty birds are eaten."

The king was astonished at this speech, and said, "Sister, where shall we find the King of the Peacocks?" "I don't know," answered she; "but I will marry no one else." The king and the queen then resolved to have a portrait painted of the Princess Rosetta; and when it was finished, it looked so beautiful that it seemed to want nothing but speech. They then said to her, "Rosetta, we are going to seek for the King of the Peacocks all over the world!"

They set forth on their expedition, and after sailing for six months, they came to a country where the trees were all full of peacocks, chattering so loud that they might be heard ten miles out at sea. They inquired the name of this region, and were told that it was called *Coong-seo-quo*, which, in Chinese, means the country of peacocks.

When they arrived at the capital, they saw that it was full of men and women, dressed in fine clothes made of peacock's feathers. They met the king, who was taking an airing in a beautiful little carriage of gold beset with diamonds and drawn by twelve peacocks. The travellers addressed him thus: "May it please your peacock majesty, we have come from a far country, to show you a portrait;" and here they showed him the picture of Rosetta. He gazed upon it, and was enraptured with its beauty. "Surely," said he, "there cannot be so charming a creature in the world." "Yes, there is," they replied; "she is our sister, and we are the king and queen of Bantam. If you will marry her, we will give her a bushel and three pecks of golden crowns, for pin-money, and a pair of diamond shoe-buckles as big as hens' eggs, to wear at the wedding."

The King of the Peacocks was delighted to hear this. "I will marry her, with all my heart," said he, "if she is as fair as her portrait. But if she is not, I will put you both to death for deceiving me." To this

they agreed, and wrote a letter to their sister with information of the whole matter. Rosetta was enraptured with the news, and embarked immediately in a ship for *Coong-seo-quo*. She took with her three bushels of golden crowns, two pair of mammoth diamond shoe-buckles, and clothes enough to last ten years at the rate of two suits a day. Little Fretillon also accompanied her, as well as her old nurse and her foster-sister.

The nurse was a covetous old creature, and one night, when the ship drew towards land, she crept softly to the captain, and said, "If you wish to make your fortune, you must help me throw the princess overboard when she is asleep. I will dress my daughter in her fine clothes, and the King of the Peacocks will marry her; then you shall be rewarded." The captain was loath to drown so beautiful a creature, that had never done him any harm; but the wicked old nurse gave him liquor to drink, and, when he did not know what he was about, she persuaded him to throw the princess overboard, with her feather-bed and little Fretillon, who always lay at her feet.

In the mean time, the King of the Peacocks had come down to the shore to meet his bride, with a most splendid train of attendants, which covered the road for ten miles. He had provided a carriage for Rosetta, made all of mother-of-pearl; it was drawn by eight young peacocks; the coachman was a green baboon with red whiskers; and there were six little blue monkeys for footboys. The ship sailed into the harbor, and the false princess landed. She was dressed in Rosetta's finest silk gown, with diamonds and pearls stuck all over her. But, in spite of her gay dress, she was prodigiously ugly, for her face was brown as a nutmeg. She was squint-eyed, and had a great awkward hump on her back. Besides, she was cross and snappish, and a great slattern.

The moment she set her foot on shore, she called out, in a proud tone of authority, "You vulgar wretches, bring me something nice to eat, or I will have you all hanged!" The people, hearing this, exclaimed, "What an ugly little trollop! and as wicked as ugly! a pretty bride for our king! much good may she do him!" The peacocks who sat on the trees prepared to cry out, "Long live our beautiful Queen Rosetta!" were struck with astonishment at the sight of her, and said one to another, "Fie! how ugly she is!" This put her into a violent passion, and she exclaimed, "Kill those

saucy peacocks!" But they only laughed at her, and flew away.

When the king beheld the false princess, he almost flew out of his skin with disappointment and anger. He tore his hair, rent his clothes, and was ready to kill everybody that stood near him. "What!" he exclaimed, "have those impudent travellers made such a fool of me, with a lying story about their beautiful sister. Hang such a baboon! Let the two deceivers be thrown into a dungeon instantly." All this while the king and queen of Bantam were waiting for their sister in the palace, dressed out in their finest clothes, for this joyful meeting. Hearing a great noise at the door, they exclaimed, "Our dear Rosetta is coming!" But, instead of the princess, they were surprised by the entrance of the jailer, with a file of constables and soldiers, who immediately marched them off to prison. Here they were carried down under ground, and thrown into a dungeon, where they were up to the neck in water, surrounded with polliwogs, tadpoles, bull-frogs, and black snakes.

But, in the mean time, what became of poor Rosetta and little Fretillon? The princess, as I have told you, was lying on her feather-bed with the dog, when all the three were thrown overboard. Now the bed-ticking, being of India-rubber cloth, served for a life-preserver, and Rosetta floated on the waves. Little Fretillon crept into her bosom, and kept her warm, and they drove before the wind and sea. Just before day-break, the dog began to bark, and awaked Rosetta. You may guess her astonishment, when she looked round and found herself floating on the sea, out of sight of the ship. She fell to crying and bemoaning her fate. All day long they drifted on the ocean, and Rosetta, having nothing to eat, feared she should starve to death. But just before the sun went down, a flock of flying-fishes came skimming over her head, and little Fretillon, who was as hungry as his mistress, made a jump at them, and was so lucky as to catch one. Upon this fish the princess and her little dog made a supper. During the night several great ugly sharks came swimming round them, but Fretillon, who was afraid of nothing, kept up such a barking as scared them all away.

The next morning, they found themselves near the shore of some unknown country. The princess saw a fisherman's hut not far from the sea, but no human being was to be seen. She said to Fretillon, "Stubboy! bark, Fretty, bark!" The dog barked as

loud as he could, and presently a man came out of the hut to see what the noise came from. He looked out toward the ocean, and presently discovered something floating there; on which he took his boat and paddled off. You may judge of his surprise and astonishment when he found Rosetta. He took her into his hut, for he was an honest and kind-hearted fisherman. He made her sit down by a fire of sticks, gave her a blanket to keep her warm, and in an hour or two she began to feel quite comfortable. Little Fretillon danced round the hut for joy at her happy escape.

The old man wondered at this strange adventure, and entreated the princess to tell him her story. So she told him the whole, from beginning to end, crying bitterly all the while; for she thought that the King of the Peacocks had ordered her to be drowned. The honest old man was touched with pity. "How shall we act, my child?" said he. "You are a noble princess, accustomed to good living, while I am a poor fisherman, who has nothing to eat but johnny-cake and herring. This is the peacock country, although you did not know it. Let me go and tell the king that you are here; for, if he could once but see you, he would instantly be willing to take you for his wife."

"Alas," replied Rosetta, "he is a wicked man, and would instantly put me to death. But we will do this. Here is my little dog; just tie a basket round his neck, and send him out; it is ten to one that he will bring us home something to eat."

The old man gave the princess a little basket. She tied it round the dog's neck, and said to him, "Go to Peacockville, find the best saucepan in the city, and bring me whatever it contains." The little dog wagged his tail, cut a caper, and answered, "Bow-wow," as much as to say, "I have a dog's nose for saucepans," and off he trotted.

As soon as Fretillon arrived at the city, he ran straight to the king's palace, entered the kitchen by the back door, and began to peep about slyly. Seeing a silver saucepan on the dresser, he jumped up, looked into it, and discovered two roast ducks and two apple dumplings. Without more ado, he popped them into his basket, and ran off. Rosetta and the old man were amazed when the dog came running back with so fine a dinner for them. "Go again, Fretillon," said she; "perhaps you can get us some nice white bread and a little fruit, to finish our repast." "Bow-wow," said the dog; and away he ran again with his basket. When he reached the palace, the kitchen door was

shut, for the cooks had missed the ducks and dumplings, and were in great trouble, thinking some beggar had stolen them. Fretillon scratched at the door, but was unable to open it. He then ran round the corner, and climbed in at a window, which stood partly open. He then popped under the table, and crept slyly into the cupboard, where he helped himself to a fine white loaf, a dozen soda-biscuits, a minced pie, a pound of raisins, and three cranberry tarts nicely sugared. With all these in his basket, he trotted home again.

When the king's dinner-hour had come, he was puzzled to guess why the bell did not ring. At length came the chief officer of the kitchen, who was called the "knight of the golden gridiron," and said, "May it please your peacock majesty, the ducks and dumplings have disappeared, nobody knows how, and your majesty has nothing for dinner!" The king was much vexed at this disappointment, for he was exceedingly fond of roast duck and dumpling. However, there was no remedy; so he dined that day on cold meat, and ordered a green goose and cherry-pie for next day's dinner.

The next day, Rosetta sent off her dog with his basket again. When he came to the palace he found the doors and windows all shut close; for the cook had missed the bread, pies and raisins, and was determined to keep the beggars out of the house this time. Fretillon ran smelling and scratching about, fearing he should not be able to get in. At last he discovered a coal-hole, which he crept into, and found himself in the cellar. Here he got up the back stairs into the kitchen, and carried off the green goose and cherry-pie.

When dinner-time came, there was no bell rung again, and the king sent immediately for the knight of the golden gridiron. That personage made his appearance with his face as pale as ashes. "Please your peacock majesty," said he, trembling all over, from head to foot, "the goose and cherry-pie have disappeared, like the ducks and dumplings. Either we are all bewitched, or the dishes have legs and run away of themselves!" The king was more amazed than ever at this new disaster. However, he made a shift to dine upon some cold minced fish, and ordered a baked woodchuck and custard for to-morrow.

This time the king was determined to know what became of his dinner. So, about eleven o'clock, just as it was put into the oven, he dressed himself in an old green baize jacket and corduroy trousers, smutted

his face, and went into the kitchen, pretending to be one of the scullions. Here he kept watch in a corner; and a few minutes after the dinner was taken out of the oven, he beheld a little green dog, with one ear, creep slyly out of the ash-hole, catch up the woodchuck and custard, and run off with them in a basket. The king followed him, to see where he would carry them, and the dog led him to the old fisherman's cottage.

The king then returned to the city, threw off his scullion's dress, and gave orders to seize all the persons in the cottage, and bring them bound before him. So the officers went to the cottage, where they found Rosetta, the old fisherman, and Fretillon, dining on the woodchuck and custard of his peacock majesty. They instantly seized the princess and old man, and tied their hands; the dog, also, they bound by the fore paws; and all three were carried to the king.

When the prisoners were brought into his majesty's presence,—as you may see them in the engraving at the beginning of this article,—the king demanded who they were, and what they meant by stealing his dinner. The old man threw himself at his feet, and told the whole story of the Princess Rosetta. The king, who had not before taken any notice of the princess, because she was dressed in old, tattered clothes, now gazed earnestly in her face, and at length exclaimed, "Bring me the picture; for I believe this is indeed the real Princess Rosetta, and the other was a counterfeit!" When the picture was brought, every one saw that it was so, indeed; on which the king took the princess by the hand, and saluted her as his bride. There was a great rejoicing throughout the palace, and every one cried, "Long live our queen, the beautiful Rosetta!"

The king and queen of Bantam were immediately released from their dungeon, and lodged in the finest apartments of the palace. The wedding took place immediately, and Rosetta became the Queen of the Peacocks. The king bestowed a liberal reward upon the benevolent old fisherman, who had taken compassion upon Rosetta in her distress. As for the wicked nurse and her ugly daughter, he spared their lives, but condemned them to the kitchen, where they were compelled to scour dirty frying-pans as long as they lived. Thus all parties got their deserts, not even excepting little Fretillon, who, for his fidelity and attachment to his mistress, was allowed a pig's-trotter and a pumpkin custard every day for his dinner.



MOUNT ST. BERNARD.

THE highest peak of the Alps, in Switzerland, called Mont Blanc, is nearly two thirds of a mile high; that is, about three times as high as Mount Washington, the tallest mountain in the United States, east of the Mississippi. It is always covered with ice and snow, in summer as well as in winter.

Around this lofty peak are other mountains, between which there are deep valleys,

and swift rivers, and beautiful lakes. In these regions, along the sides of the mountains, and in the valleys, the Swiss people live, and here they have cities and villages.

In summer, the valleys are, like those of Vermont and New Hampshire, covered with bright verdure, and afford the most lovely landscapes. But in winter the snow falls to a great depth, and sometimes buries whole villages so deep that the people are

obliged to dig holes from house to house under the snow. Sometimes a family, with its pigs, hens, and cattle, live under the snow for two or three months, going about in burrows or alleys which they have dug in the snow.

It often happens that the great masses of snow which have accumulated high up in the mountains tumble into the valleys. A slide of this sort is called an *avalanche*. One occurred many years ago, so late as the month of April. At first, when it began to descend from the high mountains, it looked only like a small wreath of mist, but it soon grew larger, and as it came near and plunged into a ravine, it made the pine-trees crack and writhe, and fell at last with a dead, thundering sound, which made the rocks shake.

The people among the high Alps do not often attempt to travel about much during winter; but still they sometimes do it, and accordingly sad accidents have happened from persons getting lost, or frozen, or buried in the snow-drifts. These have been so frequent on the road leading over the tall mountain called St. Bernard, that some monks have built a convent there, and devoted themselves to the saving of travellers who may be in danger of perishing in the snow.

These monks, it is said, have actually saved a great many people; and in this charitable business they have been aided by a kind of spaniel, a large shaggy dog, much resembling our Newfoundland breed. All, probably, have read the story of one of these dogs, which found a boy, nearly frozen, upon the snow. Somehow or other the little fellow got upon the creature's back, and he was carried to the door of the convent, and thus his life was saved.

Many very interesting stories of these dogs are told. It is said that, sometimes, when persons have been overwhelmed by snow-drifts, and buried eight or ten feet deep, these creatures have found them, and begun to howl, and thus brought the monks to their aid. The dogs assist in digging, and work with all their might; and thus persons have often been rescued. These dogs go out on cold, winter nights, to see if they can find anybody in distress; one of them has a wooden flask of spirits tied to his neck, to provide for the chance that they may meet with some one who is ready to faint from cold and weariness.

One of these dogs saved the lives of twenty persons, who had otherwise perished in the mountains. He was therefore

honored with a medal of silver, which he always wore around his neck. But, alas! this noble animal fell a victim to his charitable exertions. In the winter of 1816, the courier of Piedmont arrived at the convent of St. Bernard. The snow was falling fast, and the weather was intensely cold. The man was advised by no means to proceed, but he was anxious to reach his family that night, and so he set forward. The monks had furnished him with two guides and two dogs, one of them the famous dog of the medal.

They all proceeded amid the snow and the tempest, but in a short time a terrific avalanche descended from the mountains, and buried them beneath its enormous masses. Every one perished; and, sad to relate, some members of the family of the poor courier, who expected him, and who had set out to meet him, shared the same fate.



BARNACLES.

THE sea, as well as the land, appears full of wonders, if we study the works of nature with care. Almost every one has seen slimy and moss-like masses adhering to pieces of timber and the bottoms of ships, in the water. These are found to be separate animals, the body of each enclosed in a shell; but they have long *peduncles*, or tendons, by which they attach

themselves, in groups to particular places. They are fond of situations in which there is a current, and here, dancing up and down, they seem to pass a luxurious existence. Such are the creatures called *barnacles*, and which most careless observers suppose to be only an inanimate cluster of sea-weed.



THE CHAMOIS.

THE *antelope ruficapra* is of a fawn color in summer, and brown in winter; a dark line passes through each eye. Its horns are seven or eight inches long, and hooked at the end; the tail is short. This animal inhabits the mountains of Switzerland. It is about the size of a domestic goat, and resembles it in many respects. It is most exceedingly lively, and active beyond expression. Its hair is short, like that of the doe. The young follows the dam for about five months, and sometimes longer, if the hunters or the wolves do not separate them. It is asserted that they live between twenty and thirty years. The flesh of the chamois is good to eat; and some of the fattest afford ten or twelve pounds of suet, which far surpasses that of the goat in solidity and goodness.

The cry of the chamois is not distinctly known; if it has any, it is but faint, and resembling a kind of grunt. When these creatures are frightened, or in danger of an enemy, or some other object not perfectly known to them, they warn the rest of the flock by a kind of hissing noise. It is observable, that the chamois has a very penetrating eye, and its hearing and smell are not less distinguishing. When it finds an enemy near, it stops for a moment, and

then in an instant flies off with the utmost speed. When the wind is in its favor, it can smell a human creature for more than half a mile distance. When this happens, therefore, and it cannot see its enemy, but only discovers his approach by the scent, it begins the hissing noise with such force, that the rocks and the forests reëcho with the sound. The hissing continues as long as the breath will permit. In the beginning it is very shrill, and deeper towards the close. The animal rests a moment, after this alarm, to inspect further into the danger; and, having confirmed the reality of its suspicion, it commences to hiss by intervals, till it has spread the alarm to a great distance.

During this time, it is in the most violent agitation, strikes the ground forcibly with its fore foot, and sometimes with both. It bounds from rock to rock; it turns and looks round; it goes to the edge of the precipice, and when it has obtained a sight of the enemy, flies from it with all speed. The hissing of the male is much more acute than that of the female; it is performed through the nostrils, and is, properly, no more than a very strong breath, forced through the nostrils by fixing the tongue to the palate, keeping the teeth nearly

shut, the lips open, and a little lengthened. Their agility is wonderful, as they will throw themselves down across a rock, which is nearly perpendicular, and twenty or thirty feet in height, without a single prop to support their feet. Their motion has, indeed, rather the appearance of flying than of leaping.

The chamois feeds upon the best herbage, and chooses the most delicate parts of plants, flowers, and the most tender buds. It is not less delicate with regard to several aromatic herbs, which grow upon the sides of the Alps. It drinks but very little, while it feeds upon the succulent herbage, and ruminates, like the goat, in the intervals of feeding. Its head is crowned with two small horns of a beautiful black, and rising from the forehead, almost betwixt the eyes. These horns are often made use of for the heads of canes. The hides of these animals are very strong and supple, and good warm waistcoats and gloves are made of them.

The hunting of the chamois is very laborious, and extremely difficult and perilous. It is thus admirably described by Saussure:—"The chamois-hunter sets out upon his expedition of fatigue and danger generally in the night. His object is to

find himself, at the break of day, in the most elevated pastures, where the chamois comes to feed before the flocks shall have arrived there. The chamois feeds only at morning and at evening. When the hunter has nearly reached the spot where he expects to find his prey, he reconnoitres with a telescope. If he find not the chamois, he mounts still higher; but if he discovers him, he endeavors to climb above him, and to get nearer, by passing round some ravine, or gliding behind some eminence or rock. When he is near enough to distinguish the horns of the animal, which are small, round, pointed, and bent backward like a hook, he rests his rifle upon a rock, and takes his aim with great coolness. He rarely misses. This rifle is often double-barrelled. If the chamois falls, the hunter runs to his prey—makes sure of him by cutting the hamstrings—and applies himself to consider by what way he may best regain his village. If the route is very difficult, he contents himself with skinning the chamois; but if the way is at all practicable with a load, he throws the animal over his shoulder, and bears it home to his family, undaunted by the distance he has to go, and the precipices he has to cross."



THE OWL.

ALL birds of the owl kind have one common mark, by which they are distinguished from others; their eyes, like those of tigers and cats, are formed for seeing better in the dusk than in the broad glare of sunshine. The pupil, in fact, is capable of

opening very wide, or shutting very close; and, by contracting it, the brighter light of the day, which would act too powerfully upon the sensibility of the eye, is excluded, while, by dilating the pupil, the animal takes in the more faint rays of the night,

and thereby is enabled to spy its prey, and to catch it with greater facility in the dark. But though owls are dazzled by too bright a daylight, yet they do not see best in the darkest nights, as some have been apt to imagine.

The nights when the moon shines are the times of their most successful plunder; for when it is wholly dark, they are less qualified for seeing and pursuing their prey. Except, therefore, by moonlight, they contract the hours of their chase; and if they come out at the approach of dusk in the evening, they return before it is totally dark, and then rise by twilight the next morning, to pursue their game, and to return, in like manner, before the broad daylight begins to dazzle them with its splendor.

Yet the faculty of seeing in the night, or of being entirely dazzled by day, is not alike in every species of these nocturnal birds. The common white or barn-owl, for instance, sees with such exquisite acuteness in the dark, though the barn has been shut at night, and the light thus totally excluded, that it perceives the smallest mouse that peeps from its hole; on the contrary, the brown horned owl is often seen to prow along the hedges by day, like the sparrowhawk, and sometimes with good success.

The *great horned owl* is found in almost every quarter of the United States. "His favorite residence," says Wilson, "is in the dark solitudes of deep swamps, covered with a growth of gigantic timber; and here, as soon as evening draws on, and mankind retires to rest, he sends forth such sounds as seem scarcely to belong to this world. Along the mountainous shores of the Ohio, and amidst the deep forests of Indiana, alone and reposing in the woods, this ghostly watchman has frequently warned me of the approach of morning, and amused me by his singular exclamations; sometimes sweeping down and around my fire, uttering a sudden *waugh O! waugh O!* sufficient to have alarmed a whole garrison."

The *snowy owl* is a native of the most northern regions of both continents. It is very seldom, however, to be met with south of Sweden; while in America it appears to be most frequent in the latitude of Hudson's Bay.

The *white or barn-owl* is more common in Europe than in the United States; and is only found here during very severe winters. This may possibly be owing to the want of those favorite recesses in this part of the world, which it so much affects in the Eastern continent. The multitude of

old ruined towers, castles, monasteries, and cathedrals, that everywhere rise to view in those countries, are the chosen haunts of this well known species. Its savage cries at night give, with vulgar minds, a cast of supernatural horror to those venerable mouldering piles of antiquity.

The *hawk-owl* is a connecting link between the hawk and owl tribes. It has one strong trait of the hawk tribe in flying and preying by day, contrary to the general habit of owls. It is characterized as a bold and active species, following the fowler and carrying off his game as soon as shot. It is said to prey on partridges and birds, and is very common in Hudson's Bay. It is rare in the southern parts of the United States. Its favorite range seems to be along the borders of the arctic regions. Of their nest and manner of breeding we have no account. It is an inhabitant of both continents.

It is worthy of remark, that in all owls that fly by night, the exterior edges of the wing-quills are slightly curved, and end in fine hairs or points; by which means the bird is enabled to pass through the air with the greatest silence; a provision necessary for enabling them the better to secure their prey. In the hawk-owl, which flies by day, and to whom this contrivance would be of no consequence, it is accordingly omitted, or at least is scarcely observable.

The *red owl* is well known by its common name of the *little screech-owl*; and is noted for its melancholy, quivering kind of wailing in the evening, particularly towards the latter part of summer and autumn, near the farmhouse. On clear moonlight nights, they answer each other from various parts of the fields or orchards; roost during the day in thick evergreens, such as cedar, pine, or juniper-trees, and are rarely seen abroad during the sunshine. They construct their nests in the hollow of a tree, often in the orchard, in an old apple-tree.

"I kept one of these birds," says Wilson, "in a room for several weeks. It was caught in a barn, and being unhurt, I had an opportunity of remarking its manners. At first it struck itself so forcibly against the window as frequently to deprive it, seemingly, of all sensation for several minutes; this was done so repeatedly that I began to fear that either the glass or the owl's skull must give way. In a few days, however, it either began to comprehend the matter, or to take disgust at the glass; for it never repeated its attempts, and soon became quite tame and familiar. Those who have seen this bird only in the day can

form but an imperfect idea of its activity, and even sprightliness, in its proper season of exercise. Throughout the day it was all stillness and gravity; its eyelids half shut, its neck contracted, and its head shrunk seemingly into its body. But scarcely was the sun set and twilight began to approach, when its eyes became full and sparkling, like two living globes of fire; it crouched on its perch; reconnoitred every object round with looks of eager fierceness; alighted and fed; stood on the meat with clenched talons, while it tore it in morsels with its bill; flew round the room with the silence of thought, and perching, moaned out its melancholy notes with many lively gesticulations, not at all accordant with the pitiful tone of its ditty, which reminded one of the shivering moaning of a half-frozen puppy!"

The *burrowing-owl* differs essentially from all others in his habits and manners. Instead of hiding his head in the daylight, he fearlessly flies abroad, in search of prey, in the broadest glare of the sun; and far from seeking abodes of solitude and silence, he lives in company with animals in the recesses of the earth, where they all enjoy the

pleasures of fellowship and good harmony. The mounds of the prairie-dog or marmot, which are thrown up in such numbers near the Rocky Mountains, are about eighteen inches in height. The entrance is by a passage two feet in length, which terminates in a comfortable cell composed of dry grass, where the marmot takes up his winter abode. Around these villages, the burrowing-owls may be seen moving briskly about, singly or in small flocks. They seem to have very little fear of man; either soaring to a distance when alarmed, or descending into the burrows, where it is very difficult to come at them. Their food consists of insects.

All this tribe of animals, however they may differ in their size and plumage, agree in their characteristics of preying by night; their bodies are strong and muscular; their feet and claws made for tearing their prey; and their stomachs for digesting it. It must be remarked, however, that the digestion of all birds that live upon mice, lizards, or such like food, is not very perfect; for, though they swallow them whole, yet they are always seen some time after to disgorge the skin and bones, as being indigestible.



HINDOO JUGGLERS.

THE dexterity of the Hindoos, in tumbling, rope-dancing, and legerdemain, is so much superior to that of Europeans, that the statements of travellers on the subject were much doubted, until they came to exhibit their singular feats in this quarter of the globe.

Nothing is more common in India than to see young girls walking on their heads, with their heels in the air, turning round like a wheel, or walking on their hands and feet, with the body bent backwards. Another girl will bend backwards, plunge her head into a hole about eighteen inches

deep, full of water and dirt, and bring up, between her lips, a ring that was buried in the mud. Two women may frequently be seen dancing together on a rope stretched over tressels; the one playing on the *vina*, or Hindoo guitar, the other holding two vessels brimfull of water, and capering about, without spilling a drop.

A plank is sometimes fixed to the top of a pole twenty-five feet high, which is set upright; a man then climbs up it, springs backward, and seats himself upon the plank. Another mountebank balances himself by the middle of the body on a bamboo pole, fifteen or eighteen feet high. He first sets the pole upright, then climbs up it with his legs and arms, as if it were a firmly-rooted tree. On reaching the top, he clings to it with his feet and hands, after fixing the centre of the pole in the middle of his sash, and dances, moving in all directions to the sound of music, without the pole ever losing its equilibrium. He then descends, takes a boy on his shoulders, climbs up the pole again, and stands on the top on one leg.

Sometimes a boy lies across the extremity of the bamboo, and holds himself quite stiff for a considerable time. A man lifts up the pole and the boy in that state, and moves him about in all directions without losing the balance.

A still more extraordinary feat is performed by the Hindoo women. One of them will sometimes balance herself in a horizontal position, with her arms extended like a person swimming, on the top of a bamboo pole, ninety feet high, fixed in the ground. In a short time, she seems to have lost her balance, and falls, to the no small terror of the spectators; but this is only one of her customary movements; she catches by one foot in a rope fastened to her, which crosses the middle of the pole, and remains suspended with her head downwards.

Broughton, mentioning the exhibition of a set of jugglers, tells us that he was particularly astonished by the feats of a woman, who rested on her head and feet, with her back towards the earth; two swords, with their blades inwards, were crossed upon her chin, and two others, their blades also inwards, under her neck. She then traversed round in the circle with great rapidity, keeping her head always fixed in the centre, and leaping over the points of the swords whenever her breast chanced to be downward.

A man will balance a sword having a broad blade, with the point resting on his chin. He will then set a straw upright on

his nose, or on a small piece of stick, which he holds and keep moving about with his lips; lastly, he will lay a piece of thin tile on his nose, and throw up a small stone, which, falling on the tile, breaks it to pieces.

The Hindoos balance themselves on the slack rope with uncommon skill, by means of a long stick placed on the end of the nose. Sometimes at the top of this stick is set a large tray, from which walnut-shells are suspended by threads. In each of these shells is a stick, which reaches the juggler's upper lip. By the mere motion of his lips, he throws up the shells, one after another, upon the tray, without deranging anything, and continuing to balance himself all the time. During this operation, he strings pearls upon a horse-hair by means of his tongue and lips alone, and without any assistance from his hands.

There are three feats in particular which a Hindoo juggler performs. The first is playing on the ground with cups and balls. His posture, which seems less favorable for his tricks than that of people of his profession in Europe, is no drawback to his complete success in the deceptions which he practises upon the astonished spectators.

The trick of swallowing a sword two feet long, or rather of thrusting it down his throat into the stomach, up to the hilt, has become familiar to us by the public exhibitions of Ramo Samee, and his companions, natives of India. Before the arrival in Europe of these jugglers, whose speculation, it is said, was most profitable, attempts had been made, but unsuccessfully, to induce other professors of the art to go to England for the purpose of exhibition.

The Hindoos are not only extremely dexterous themselves, but they have found means to communicate their dexterity to the very brutes. They train bullocks, or buffaloes, to the performance of a very difficult task. A Hindoo lies down upon the ground on his back, and places on the lower part of his stomach a piece of wood cut in a peculiar shape. A buffalo, at the command of his master, sets first one foot, and then the other, on this piece of wood, and then his two hinder feet in succession, and balances himself upon it. But this is not all; the master places a second pedestal by the side of the first; the animal steps upon it in like manner, and when he has placed all four feet on this movable column, he balances himself with wonderful dexterity. Goats are also taught to perform the trick, in which we know not whether most to admire the patience or the docility of the animal.



HAWKING IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

FALCONRY, or hawking, is an amusement of forgotten antiquity, originally practised in Asia. It was the fashionable sport of the Middle Ages, a favorite with nobles, kings, and ladies. So elegant and showy a pastime, and one in the excitements of which the gentler sex could share with the rougher, failed not to become very prevalent, especially in France. In a very old French poem on forest sports, falconry is compared with hunting, and the preference given to the former, because "queens, duchesses, and countesses, are allowed, by their husbands, to carry the falcon on their wrists, without offending propriety, and that they can enjoy all the sport of this kind of hunting, whilst, in hunting with hounds, they are only allowed to follow by the wide roads or over open fields, in order to see the dogs pass."

"The knight, on such occasions, was anxious to pay his court to the ladies, by his attentions to the falcons. He was obliged to be careful to fly the bird at the proper moment, to follow it immediately, never to lose sight of it, to encourage it by calls, to take the prey from it, caress it, put on the hood, and place the impetuous bird gracefully on the wrist of his mistress."

The training of a bird for this sport was a very critical process; and there were those very learned upon it, and who even wrote treatises of falconry which were deemed a fit and necessary study for an accomplished gentleman. The birds destined to this sort of training for the chase were taken from

the nest when quite young, and for months were nourished with the flesh of pigeons given to them raw, and also of wild birds. Much time and pains were then spent in teaching them to sit on the hand, by practising them in perching upon posts, movable bars, &c. To tame them into obedience to the will of the master, they were deprived of sleep and food, beaten, and otherwise tyrannized over, till the creatures found that absolute submission to the word of command was by far the least of two evils. The same persevering government inured them to wear a leather hood over their heads. To practise them in their art, and without the risk of their flying away, they were attached to a string some two hundred feet long, till they were so far disciplined as to be trusted with liberty, and yet relinquish it on the instant, at a given signal.

When brought out for use into the open country, their heads were hooded, and they were allowed to see nothing but their game; and as soon as the game was put up by the dogs, or indicated by them, the powerful bird was tossed from the wrist, and darted straight towards it; if a quadruped, it pounced upon its head, or seated itself there, and pecked the eyes of the chase, till, bewildered and terrified, it fell an easy prey. If a bird were the quarry, or object of chase, the scene became very animating and excited. Picturesquely scattered over the fields, could be seen stately dames, with their proud and beautiful faces eagerly upturned, beaming, piquantly, perhaps with a little of the ferocity of the age; gay squires on their daintily caparisoned steeds, cheering the falcon to exert his utmost swiftness and prowess; noble personages relaxing from their dignity to watch manœuvres that must often remind them, in miniature, of their own pursuits—these on high mettle but well managed steeds; while all abroad, the crowd of low degree filled the welkin with their boisterous clamor.

The expense of the hawking establishment was sometimes extravagant. Under Francis I., of France, the "flower of chivalry,"—whose ambition it was to be the arbiter of elegance, the mirror of his age, first in every manly sport, courtly pastime, or gay adventure,—incredible sums were devoted to this one amusement. His training establishments were in charge of a Grand Falconer, whose salary was four thousand livres, and who had, subordinate to him, fifteen noblemen and fifty falconers; with the care of three hundred falcons. The

yearly cost of the whole was forty thousand livres.

The great conquerors of Asia were even more magnificent in the expenses of falconry. The Emperor of China is attended in his sporting progresses into Tartary by his grand falconer, with one thousand subordinates; and every bird has a silver plate fastened to his foot with the name of the

falconer who has charge of it, so that if lost it may be returned to the proper person; but if he cannot be found it must be handed to a special officer, called the *Guardian of Lost Birds*, who keeps it till it is demanded by the falconer to whom it belonged. The grand falconer, the more easily to be found among the army of hunters, erects a conspicuous standard.



BOA CONSTRICTOR.

THE ground color of the body of the Great Boa, which is the largest and strongest of the serpent race, is yellowish gray, on which is distributed, along the back, a series of large, chain-like, reddish-brown, and sometimes perfectly red variations, with other small and more irregular marks and spots.

The great boa is frequently from twenty-five to thirty feet in length, and of a proportionate thickness. The rapacity of these creatures is often their own destruction; for whenever they seize and swallow their prey, they seem like surfeited gluttons, unwieldy, stupid, helpless, and sleepy. They at the same time seek for some retreat, where they may lurk for several days together, and digest their meal in safety. The smallest effort will then destroy them; they scarcely can make any resistance; and, equally unqualified for flight or opposition, even the naked Indians do not fear to assail them. But it is otherwise when this sleeping interval of digestion is over; they then issue, with famished appetites, from their retreats, and with accumulated terrors, while every animal of the forest flies from their

presence. One of them has been known to kill and devour a buffalo.

Having darted upon the affrighted beast, (says a witness of such a scene,) the serpent instantly began to wrap him round with its folds; and at every twist the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack as loud as the report of a gun. It was in vain that the animal struggled and bellowed; its enormous enemy entwined it so closely, that at length all its bones were crushed to pieces, like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body was reduced to one uniform mass; the serpent then untwined its folds, in order to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and also to make it slip down the throat more smoothly, it was seen to lick the whole body over, and thus to cover it with a mucilaginous substance. It then began to swallow it, at the end that offered the least resistance; and in the act of swallowing, the throat suffered so great a dilatation, that it took in at once a substance that was thrice its own thickness.

This animal inhabits India, Africa, and South America. With respect to their con-

formation all serpents have a very wide mouth, in proportion to the size of the head ; and, what is very extraordinary, they can gape and swallow the head of another animal which is three times as big as their own. To explain this, it must be observed, that the jaws of this animal do not open as ours, in the manner of a pair of hinges, where bones are applied to bones, and play upon one another ; on the contrary, the ser-

pent's jaws are held together at the roots by a stretching muscular skin ; by which means they open as widely as the animal chooses to stretch them, and admit of a prey much thicker than the snake's own body. The throat, like stretching leather, dilates to admit the morsel ; the stomach receives it in part ; and the rest remains in the gullet, till putrefaction and the juices of the serpent's body unite to dissolve it.



HIPPOPOTAMUS.

THIS name signifies the *river-horse*. His head is broad, his lips very thick, his tusks formidable, skin very thick, legs and tail very short. He is supposed to be the same as the Behemoth mentioned in Scripture.

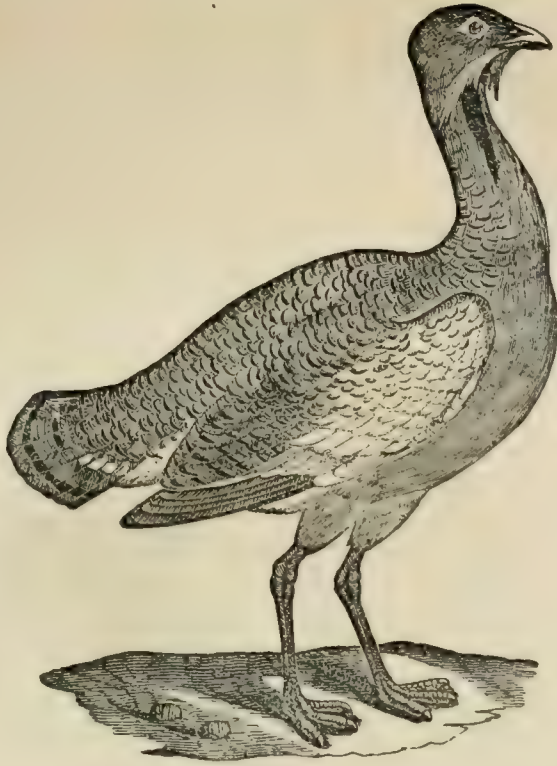
The hippopotamus inhabits the large and shady rivers of Africa, and the lakes of Ethiopia. It is timid and sluggish on land, — when pursued, it betakes itself to the water, plunges in, and walks at the bottom, quite at ease, though rising often to the surface for breath. During the night, it leaves the water, and feeds on sugar-cane, rushes, millet, rice, &c.

In this way it does incalculable damage, not only from the quantity it consumes, but from the still greater quantity that is spoiled and laid waste. In a short space of time, several of these animals will entirely destroy a whole field of corn and clover, not leaving the least verdure as they pass, for they are voracious, and require much to satisfy their appetite.

In Egypt, the river-horse does so much

damage, that the people resort to a curious mode to free themselves from him. They remark the places he frequents most, and there they lay a large quantity of dry peas ; when the beast comes on shore hungry and voracious, he falls to eating what is nearest to him, and filling his belly with the peas, they occasion an insupportable thirst. He then returns immediately to the river, and drinks large draughts of water, which immediately causes his death ; for the peas soon begin to swell with the water, and not long after, the Egyptians find him dead on the shore, as if he had taken poison.

The voice of the hippopotamus is described as a harsh, heavy sound, like the creaking or groaning of a large wooden door. This noise is made when the animal raises its huge head out of water, and when he retires into it again. The ivory of the great teeth is very much valued, particularly by dentists. No other ivory keeps its color so well.



THE GREAT BUSTARD.

THIS is the largest bird that is a native of Europe. It was once much more numerous than it is at present; but the increased cultivation of the country, and the extreme delicacy of its flesh, have greatly thinned the species; so that the time may come when it may be doubted whether so large a bird was ever bred there. It is probable that, long before this, the bustard would have been extirpated, but for its peculiar manner of feeding. It inhabits only the open and extensive plain, where its food lies in abundance, and where every invader may be seen at a distance.

The weight of this bird varies considerably; some have been found of not more than ten pounds, others have been found of twenty-seven and even thirty. The female is not more than half the size of the male. The bustard is distinguished from the ostrich, the touyou, the cassowary, and the dodo, by its wings, which, although disproportioned to the size of its body, yet serve to elevate it in the air, and enable it to fly, though with some difficulty; they are generally about four feet from the tip of one to

that of the other. The neck is a foot long, and the legs a foot and a half. The head and neck of the male are ash-colored; the back is barred transversely with black, and bright rust color. The greater quill feathers are black, the belly white, and the tail, which consists of twenty feathers, is marked with broad black bars.

The bustard was anciently common in Libya, in the environs of Alexandria, in Syria, in Greece, in Spain, in France, in the plains of Poitou and Champagne; but they are now rare. They are sometimes seen in England, on the extensive downs of Salisbury Plain, in the heaths of Sussex and Cambridgeshire, the Dorsetshire uplands, and as far as East Lothian, in Scotland. In those extensive plains, where there are no woods to screen the sportsman, nor hedges to creep along, the bustards enjoy an indolent security. Their food is composed of the berries that grow among the heath, and the large earth-worms that appear in great quantities on the downs before sun-rising, in summer. They also eat green corn, the tops of turnips, and other vegetables;

and have even been known to devour frogs, mice, and young birds. It is in vain that the fowler creeps forward to approach them; they have always sentinels placed at proper eminences, which are ever on the watch, and warn the flock of the smallest appearance of danger. All therefore that is left to the sportsman is the comfortless view of their distant security. He may wish—but they are in safety.

It sometimes happens that these birds, though they are seldom shot by the gun, are run down by greyhounds. As they are voracious and greedy, they often sacrifice their safety to their appetite, and feed themselves so very fat, that they are unable to fly without great preparation. When the greyhound, therefore, comes within a certain distance the bustard runs off, flapping its wings, and endeavors to gather air enough under them to rise; in the mean time the enemy approaches nearer, till it is too late for the bird even to think of obtaining safety by flight; for just at the rise there is always time lost, and of this the bird is sensible; it continues, therefore, on the foot until it is taken.

As there are few places where they can at once find proper food and security, so they generally continue near their old haunts, seldom wandering above twenty or thirty miles from home. As their food is replete with moisture, it enables them to live upon these dry plains, where there are scarcely any springs of water, a long time without drinking. Besides this, nature has given the males an admirable magazine for their security against thirst. This is a pouch, the entrance of which lies immediately under the tongue, and capable of holding near seven quarts of water. This is probably filled upon proper occasions, to supply the hen when sitting, or the young before they can fly. The bustard also makes use of its reservoir to defend itself against birds of prey; which it effects by ejecting the water with such violence as often to arrest the progress of its enemy!

They form no nest, but only scrape a hole in the earth, and sometimes line it with a little long grass or straw. They lay two eggs only, almost the size of a goose egg, of a pale olive brown, marked with spots of a darker color. They hatch in nearly thirty days, and the young ones run about as soon as they are out of the shell.

It is said that when the persecuted mother is apprehensive of the hunters, and is disturbed from her nest, she takes her eggs under her wing, and transports them to a

place of safety. The fact is, however, that, following the instinct of all other birds of this kind, they generally make their nests in the grain fields, where they are almost certain of remaining undisturbed.

The bustard is not known in America. Besides the delicacy of their flesh, the quills are valuable, as they make excellent pens; but they are still more esteemed by anglers, who use them as floats; for, as they are spotted with black, the notion is, that these black spots appear as flies to the fish, which they rather allure than drive away by their appearance.



CHRISTMAS.

THOUGH the month of December is one which brings gloomy clouds and stormy winds, it is not by any means without its pleasures. The children, not apt to look deeply into the future, are delighted to see the first snow-flakes, and with them the first day on which the "ice will bear" is little less than a jubilee. And then that good old generous festival, Christmas, comes on the twenty-fifth of the month, and sour must be the bosom that does not feel the kindly influence of this holiday.

Christmas is the anniversary of Christ's birthday; and it is fit and proper that it should be signalized by deeds of charity, and by a general feeling of good-will to men. In the olden times, the day was noticed by voluptuous eating and deep drinking; and Christmas was then personified as a fat, lusty old guzzler, rising out of a punch-bowl,

as is represented in the engraving above. This was a great abuse of this happy fête-day; and it shows how coarse and brutal men may become, even in noticing a religious festivity. At the present day, in foreign countries, Christmas is still celebrated by many foolish observances, and some vicious practices. But, as the world improves, these evils are mitigated, and Christmas is now generally noticed in a proper manner.

It is a day in which our hearts should be thankful for the undeserved blessings we enjoy; for light, and life, and happiness; and, above all, for the gift, beyond price, of Christ's wondrous mission to mankind. Our bosoms being filled with such emotions, we should make this day an occasion of good deeds to the poor, the unfortunate, the wretched; a day of forgiveness to enemies and of charity to all the world.



GREAT TREES.

THE great chestnut-tree on Mount Etna is one of the most celebrated in the world. It is 196 feet round close to the ground, and five of its branches are like large trees. It has been an object of curiosity for ages.

There is a chestnut-tree at Tamworth, in England, 52 feet round. It was planted in the year 800; and, in the reign of Stephen, in 1135, it formed a boundary called the "Great Chestnut-Tree." In 1759, it bore nuts, which produced young trees.

The banyan-tree is a native of most parts of India, and has been so often described as to be familiar to almost every reader. The branches spread to a great extent, dropping their roots here and there, which, as soon as they reach the ground, rapidly increase in size, till they become as large as the parent trunk—by which means, the quantity of ground they cover is almost incredible. A

single tree is said to afford sufficient space, under its branches, to shelter a whole regiment of cavalry. Some have been seen five hundred yards in circumference, and a hundred feet high.

There is a very celebrated cypress-tree near Santa Maria del Tule, in the province of Oaxaca, republic of Mexico. This was measured by Baron Humboldt, and found to be one hundred and eighteen feet in circumference! This makes almost forty feet in diameter. The tree has no sign of decay; and though its foliage is less lively than that of smaller trees, this patriarch of the forest, calculated by all the data applied to the age of trees, would appear to have lived at least four thousand years, and perhaps even longer. There is said to be a tree in Gambia, Africa, 132 feet in circumference!



Lord Byron in Grecian costume.

LORD BYRON.

GEORGE GORDON BYRON was born in London, Jan. 22, 1788. He was of a renowned family, but his father, who held the office of a captain in the British navy, was a man of profligate habits and small fortune, and, after running through the property of his wife, deserted her, leaving his only child, the subject of this sketch, to the care of the mother. In 1790, Mrs. Byron removed to Aberdeen, where she lived in humble seclusion, her affections now entirely centred upon her son. She was a proud, violent-tempered woman, and to her excessive indulgence, interrupted only by frequent outbreaks of passion, is to be attributed much of the evil which afterwards marked the

character of Lord Byron. At the age of five, young Byron was placed at school, and at seven, entered the grammar-school at Aberdeen. At the age of ten, his uncle died, leaving to George not only his title, but the Newstead Abbey estate. He was soon after sent to the famous Harrow school, where he excelled more in sports and combats than in studies, though he made some progress in the latter by fits and starts. During a vacation, while staying at Newstead, he became enamored of a pretty girl, named Miss Chadworth, the "Mary" of his poetry, who coquetted with him for a time, and then gave her hand to another, to the bitter disappointment of the young poet.

At the age of seventeen, Lord Byron entered Trinity College, where his lawless and dissipated habits were the terror of his instructors. He kept a young bear in his room for some time, and was the proprietor of several bull-dogs! He cultivated poetry, which he began to compose at the age of ten, and in 1806 he printed a thin volume for private circulation. A year later, he published his "Hours of Idleness," which was handled with merciless ridicule by Lord Brougham, in the *Edinburgh Review*, who predicted that these poems would be "the last we shall hear from him!" The contempt thus heaped upon him aroused the indignation of Byron, and in 1809 he produced his "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," a biting satire, which fell like a thunderbolt among the astonished critics. About this time he left college, and spent nearly three years in travelling in Spain, Portugal, Greece, and Turkey. On his return he published the first two cantos of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, which produced a great sensation. "I went to bed a common man," he says, "and when I got up in the morning, I found myself famous!" He became at once the idol of society. A few days before, he had made his first speech in Parliament, the success of which might have excited him to seek political distinction, had it not been for his far greater success as a poet. "The Giaour," "The Bribe of Abydos," and "The Corsair," soon followed, and such was his reputation that fourteen thousand of the latter were sold in one day!

But, notwithstanding his success, he was subject to fits of melancholy, during which he frequently shut himself up at Newstead. By his profligacy he had incurred heavy debts, to extricate himself from which he determined on marriage, and accordingly offered his hand to the daughter of Sir Ralph Milbank, and was married, October, 1814. For a season he resided with his wife at London, in most extravagant style; but the portion which his lordship received with his bride, (£10,000,) was soon run through, and he was beset with duns, and execution was even levied on his furniture. He became irritable, and his wife, being a person of cold heart and manners, did little to soften him. She bore him a child afterwards, named Ada, but the difficulties between them increasing, they separated in January, 1816, and Byron saw his wife and child no more.

In the spring of 1816, Lord Byron left England, with a determination never to

return. His estrangement from his wife, followed by the impertinent interference of the public, put him in ill-humor with the world and with himself, and induced the resolution of banishment. He crossed over to France, through which he passed rapidly to Brussels, taking in his way a survey of the field of Waterloo, on which Napoleon had but recently been overthrown. He then passed up the Rhine, and afterwards proceeded to Geneva, where he spent the summer, and wrote several of his poems. While at Geneva, he visited very little, and spent much of his time on the lake, with the poet Shelly and his wife. His lordship's travelling-equipage was rather a singular one:—seven servants, five carriages, nine horses, a monkey, a bull-dog and mastiff, two cats, three pea-fowls, and some hens; in addition to which he had a large library, and a vast quantity of furniture!

At length, in the year 1817, Lord Byron fixed his home at Venice, where he abandoned himself to every kind of pleasure. Under the influence of excesses not only did his health suffer and his hair turn gray, but his mind, too, received sensible injury. He remained about three years at Venice, devoting much of his time to composition. During his residence at this city, he displayed a noble instance of generosity. The house of a shoemaker, near his residence, having been burnt to the ground, with every article it contained, and the proprietor, with a large family, reduced to the greatest indigence, Lord Byron, on ascertaining the facts, not only built, from his own purse, a new and superior habitation for the sufferer, but presented him with a sum equal to his loss in stock and furniture.

In 1820, Byron removed to Ravenna, one hundred and fifty miles north of Rome, where he maintained a scandalous intimacy with the Countess Guiccioli. The countess (who is now about fifty years of age) is the original of Duda, in *Don Juan*, and pictured by Byron as

"Being somewhat large, and languishing, and lazy,
Yet of a beauty that would drive you crazy!"

Becoming implicated with the countess and her friends in some plot against the Pope's government, they took refuge in Pisa. Among his companions, during his residence in Italy, were Shelly and Leigh Hunt, with whom he established a periodical called the *Liberal*; but after the publication of a few numbers the plan was relinquished. "While he was writing, as if to spite the world, and particularly to

show forth his contempt of England, he was living in the most abstemious manner, to prevent growing fat, and to preserve a genteel figure; and was also suffering excruciating torture to remedy the deformity of his foot,"—an infirmity which had rendered him slightly lame from infancy.

In 1823, Byron received flattering proposals from the Greek committee in London to go to Greece, and lend his name and fame in aid of that oppressed people. He acceded, and reached Missolonghi in January, 1824, where he devoted himself to the work with great energy, bestowing with the same prodigality his personal exertions and his money. On the ninth of April, he got wet while riding out, and a fever set in, at a time when he was dispirited at seeing his efforts unavailing to inspire harmony among the leaders of the Greeks. "His danger was seen by his physician, and bleeding was advised; but Byron obstinately refused to allow it. His last words had reference to his wife, his child, and his sister. He ordered his servant to bring him pen, ink, and paper, and appeared to suffer great agony that he could not collect his mind for the purpose of communicating his last wishes and directions. In a state of partial delirium, he threatened one of his servants with torment in a future world, if he did not take his instructions accurately. His words now became unintelligible, and what he intended to communicate is left to conjecture. He fell into a state of lethargy, and died twenty-four hours after, on the nineteenth of April, 1824, aged thirty-six years."

The death of Byron produced a great sensation throughout the world. Sir Walter Scott compared his departure to the "withdrawal of the sun from the heavens, at the moment when every telescope throughout the world was levelled to discover either its brightness or its spots."

As a poet, Byron claims the highest place among modern writers; but most of his works must be read with caution, and many are entirely unfit for perusal, so marred are they by the poet's loose morals. In person, Byron was of middling stature, his head remarkably small, though finely formed and with a lofty forehead. His lips were large, his eye deep, his hair thin, brown, and curling. The defect in one of his feet was scarcely perceptible in his gait, and did not prevent his being a vigorous swimmer, as he once swam across the Hellespont, a distance of four miles. He prided himself more on his descent than talents, and was

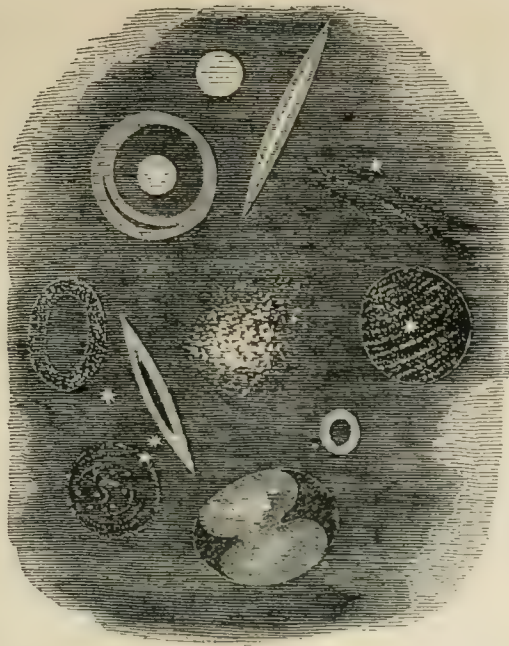
vain of his skill in boxing and pistol-shooting. He was not, strictly speaking, an infidel, though he lived as though he thought there were no God.

His final interment took place July 16th, and his remains were deposited in the family vault at Hucknall, within two miles of the venerable abbey of Newstead, he having expressed a wish in one of his poems that his dust might mingle with that of his mother.



PAPUA.

PAPUA, or New Guinea, is, next to New Holland, the largest of the Pacific islands. It is about twelve hundred miles long, and one hundred and seventy-five wide. The country seems to be fine, but little is known of it. The natives are, like the New Hollanders, a species of negro, though probably less degraded. Their canoes are large and ornamented; they have great skill in fishing; are hostile to strangers; carry on fierce wars with each other; and live in huts made of poles. Some artist has furnished us with a sketch of one of the Papua ladies, which we give above; we leave our readers to judge of her beauty and costume.



THE USE OF TELESCOPES.

ONE of the inventions most important to science that ever was made, was that of the *telescope*. The common telescope is usually called a *spy-glass*. It is used to look at distant objects, and it serves to bring them, apparently, nearer to view. At sea, the *spy-glass* is of the greatest use, for it enables the masters of vessels distinctly to see the land, which would scarcely be visible to the naked eye. He can also see vessels which are distant, and be able to tell what kind of vessels they are, what rigging they have, what colors they carry, &c., long before these things could be discovered by the naked eye.

But the telescopes made for looking at the heavenly bodies, though apparently less useful than the common *spy-glass*, have still revealed to us many interesting and wonderful, and, indeed, useful truths. By means of these, we are better acquainted with the moon; we now know that it is a rough planet of mountains and valleys, and, though resembling our earth, that it is without inhabitants, water or atmosphere.

By means of telescopes we know that Jupiter, which, to the naked eye, seems but a little star, is a great world, with four moons, and, what is curious, we know that these moons keep the same face always turned to the planet, just as our moon does to the earth. We know that Saturn, which

also seems like a little star, is a vast world, with seven moons, and a wonderful belt of light, encircling it and revolving around it. These are some of the wonders revealed to us by the telescope.

But there are still others quite as interesting. Beyond the stars which we can see with the naked eye, the telescope unfolds to the view thousands upon thousands of others, the very existence of which we had never known but for this instrument. Nor is even this all — some of the stars are not single, but two or three are close together, and evidently revolve around one another. These are called *binary*, or double stars. Astronomers have observed many thousands of these wonderful worlds, far away in the boundless regions of space.

We have all seen what is called the Milky-way, a broad, irregular band of light, crossing the entire heavens. The ancient poets represented this as the milk spilt by the nurse of their god Mercury, and from this poor and paltry conception it derived its name. Now, let us remark what the telescope says the Milky-way is — an immense number, myriads upon myriads, of worlds! What a glorious view does this unfold to us of that God who has not only made the heavens, but us also!

But besides stars of various magnitudes, revealed by the telescope, there are other

objects, called *nebulae*, from their cloud-like appearance. These are of various sizes and forms, some being without defined shape, some being circular, some long and pointed, and one bearing a resemblance to a dumb bell. The engraving at the head of this article will give some idea of the appearance of these mysterious bodies, which are seen many millions of miles off in the far regions of space.

The idea has been suggested, and with good reason, that these *nebulae* are particles of matter, thin almost as air, which are in the process of being condensed and formed into worlds. We know that a detached drop of water forms itself, at once, into a little globe, by that principle which pervades all matter—called gravitation; and we may suppose that these different particles forming the *nebulae*, being attracted to each other, will gradually assume a spherical form, and that, in the rush of these particles toward each other, currents will be created, which will give the globe a revolving motion. Such are the curious speculations of the astronomers, and there is some reason

to think them correct. What a vast conception does this view of things unfold—for it seems that not only are there countless millions of worlds already formed, all around us, but that, in the distance, the Almighty is still carrying on the stupendous process of manufacturing other worlds!—Far—far beyond the reach of the naked eye—far beyond the reach of the searching telescope—far beyond even the daring stretch of the imagination, into the unfathomed night of space—there, there, is the Almighty lighting up the regions of nothingness with existence, bidding new suns to shine in the chambers of silence and death,—and thus extending his dominions and spreading abroad the rays of his glory! If the angels and good spirits are permitted to look upon these things—to accompany the Creator in his mighty movements—to look upon his proceedings—to fathom, in some degree, his designs—to participate in his works—to coöperate in his views—and to do all this in that blissful harmony which love to God creates—O, how glorious must be that happiness which they enjoy!



THE WATER-SPOUT.

THE water-spout is a strange meteor, which has attracted a good deal of attention, but the causes of it are not entirely ascertained. Dr. Franklin's opinion was that a water-spout and a whirlwind proceed from the same cause; the only difference

being that the latter passes over the land and the former over the water. This opinion is generally believed to be correct. It is supposed that opposing winds give a whirling motion to the air, which force up masses of water, and produce the phenomena to which we allude.

The engraving represents the appearance of a water-spout. This usually resembles an enormous speaking-trumpet in shape, the mouth end being near the top of the sea. The wind is commonly blowing first this way and then that, causing the spout to bend and writhe, and move from one point to another. Beneath, where it nearly touches the water, the sea is agitated and covered with foam. Woe to the vessel that

is assailed by one of these meteors! The usual defence at sea is, to fire a cannon shot into the whirling tube, which usually dispels it, and the water falls in a tremendous shower.

Upon land, a water-spout sometimes commits the most fearful ravages; attended both by a furious wind and torrents of water, it often spreads devastation over the country which it visits. In 1839, a considerable district upon the Seine, in France, experienced the most dreadful calamities from a water-spout. It uprooted and carried away trees of the largest size; walls of stone were overturned; and tiles, roofs, and even houses, were carried away.



SPECTRAL ILLUSIONS.

THE atmosphere has the power of bending the rays of light, so that we see the sun before it actually rises above the horizon, and after it has actually sunk below it.

This bending of the rays produces some curious appearances, and which were formerly viewed with superstition. Dr. Vince, an English philosopher, was once looking through a telescope at a ship, which was so

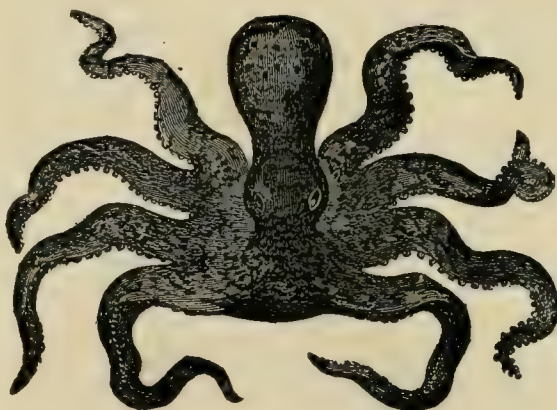
far off, that he could only see the upper parts of the masts. The hulk was entirely hidden by the bending of the water, but between himself and the ship he saw two perfect images of it in the air. These were of the same form and color as the real ship; but one of them was turned upside down.

When Captain Scoresby was in the Polar Sea with his ship, he was separated by the

ice from that of his father for some time, and looked out for her every day with great anxiety. At length, one evening, to his utter astonishment, he saw her suspended in the air, in an inverted position, traced on the horizon in the clearest colors, and with the most distinct and perfect representation. He sailed in the direction in which he saw this visionary phenomenon, and actually found his father's vessel by its indication. He was separated from the ship by immense masses of icebergs, and at such a distance

that it was impossible to have seen her in her actual situation, or to have seen her at all, if her spectrum had not been thus raised several degrees above the horizon in the air by this most extraordinary refraction.

It is by this bending of the rays of light that the images of people are often seen at a distance, and sometimes magnified to a gigantic size. We have given an account of such an appearance in the Hartz Mountains, in Germany



A MONSTER OF THE DEEP.

OUR readers know that in some parts of the ocean there are enormous sea animals called *Sepia*, which are a kind of polypi. They have very long legs, and are said sometimes to seize upon the coral divers along the coast of Italy. Mr. Beale tells us the following adventure with a creature of this sort.

"While upon the Bouin Islands, searching for shells on the rocks, which had just been left by the receding tide, I was much astonished at seeing at my feet a most extraordinary looking animal, crawling towards the retreating surf. I had never seen one like it before. It was creeping on its eight legs, which, from their soft and flexible nature, bent considerably under the weight of its body, so that it was lifted by the efforts of its tentacula only a small distance from the rocks.

"It appeared much alarmed on seeing me, and made every effort to escape, while I was not much in the humor to endeavor to capture so ugly a customer, whose appearance excited a feeling of disgust, not unmingled with fear. I, however, endeavored

to prevent its career, by pressing on one of its legs with my foot; but, although I used considerable force for that purpose, its strength was so great that it several times quickly liberated its member, in spite of all the efforts I could employ in this way, on wet, slippery rocks. I now laid hold of one of the tentacles with my hand, and held it firmly, so that the limb appeared as if it would be torn asunder by our united strength. I soon gave it a powerful jerk, wishing to disengage it from the rocks to which it clung so forcibly by its suckers, which it effectually resisted; but the moment after, the apparently enraged animal lifted its head, with its large eyes projecting from the middle of its body, and, letting go its hold of the rocks, suddenly sprang upon my arm, which I had previously bared to my shoulder for the purpose of thrusting it into holes in the rocks to discover shells, and clung, with its suckers, to it with great power, endeavoring to get its beak, which I could now see, between the roots of its arms, in a position to bite.

"A sensation of horror pervaded my whole

frame, when I found this monstrous animal, — for it was about four feet long — fixed so firmly on my arm. Its cold, slimy grasp was extremely sickening, and I immediately called aloud to the captain, who was also searching for shells at some distance, to come and release me from my disgusting assailant. He quickly arrived, and taking me down to the boat, during which time I was employed in keeping the beak away from my hand, quickly released me, by destroying my tormentor with the boat-knife,

when I disengaged it by portions at a time. This animal was that species of *Sepia* which is called by whalers 'rock squid.' Thus are these remarkable creatures, from the different adaptation of their tentacles and slight modifications of their bodies, capable of sailing, flying, swimming, and creeping on the shore, while their senses, if we may judge from the elaborate mechanism of their organs, must possess corresponding acuteness and perfection."



ROBERT FULTON.

ROBERT FULTON, the celebrated engineer, was born in Little Britain, Pennsylvania, in 1765. In his infancy he was put to school in Lancaster, where he acquired the rudiments of a common English education. His peculiar genius manifested itself at a very early age. In his childhood, all his hours of recreation were passed in the shops of mechanics, or in the employment of his pencil. At the age of seventeen years, he painted portraits and landscapes, in Philadelphia, where he remained till he was about twenty-one.

In his twenty-second year, he went to England, and was received with great kindness by his distinguished countryman, Mr. West, who was so pleased with his promising genius, and his amiable qualities, that

he took him into his house, where he continued an inmate for several years. After leaving the family of West, he appears, for some time, to have made painting his chief employment. He spent two years in Devonshire, where he formed an acquaintance with the Duke of Bridgewater, so famous for his canals, and Lord Stanhope, a nobleman celebrated for his love of science, and particularly for his attachment to the mechanic arts.

In 1793, we find Mr. Fulton actively engaged in a project to improve inland navigation. Even at that early period, he had conceived the idea of propelling vessels by steam; and he speaks, in some of his manuscripts, with great confidence of its practicability. In May, 1794, he obtained

from the British government a patent for a double-inclined plane, to be used for transportation; and in the same year, he submitted to the British Society for the Promotion of Arts and Commerce an improvement of his invention of mills for sawing marble, for which he received the thanks of the society and an honorary medal. He also obtained patents for machines for spinning flax and making ropes.

In 1797, he went to Paris, and, while there, projected the first panorama that was ever exhibited there. He also planned a *sub-marine boat*. In 1803, he completed his first steamboat, which was tried upon the Seine, and proved completely successful. He now proceeded to New York, to carry his ideas of steam navigation into practical

effect, and, in 1807, his first steamboat ascended the Hudson. Thus this great man brought to a successful issue his long meditated invention, and determined the possibility of applying steam to navigation.

Several steamboats were soon after constructed under Mr. Fulton's directions, and also a steam-frigate.

He continued to make various experiments till his death, which occurred in 1815. In person, Fulton was tall and slender, with large, dark eyes and a projecting brow. His temper was mild, his disposition lively, and his conversation fluent and original. But his principal characteristic was his constancy, industry, and perseverance, which enabled him to conquer the difficulties in his way.



THE DOMESTIC BUFFALO.

THE buffalo and the ox, although greatly resembling each other—both tame, and often living under the same roof, and fed in the same meadows—yet, when brought together, and even excited by their keepers, have ever refused to unite and couple together. Their nature is more distant than that of the ass is from the horse; there even appears to be a strong antipathy between them; for it is affirmed that cows will not suckle the young buffaloes; and the female buffalo refuses the same kindness to the other's calves. The buffalo is of a more obstinate nature, and less tractable than the ox; he obeys with great reluctance, and his temper is more coarse and brutal. Like

the hog, he is one of the filthiest of the tame animals, as he shows by his unwillingness to be cleaned and dressed; his figure is very clumsy and forbidding; his looks stupidly wild; he carries his tail in an ignoble manner, and his head in a very bad posture, almost always inclined towards the ground. His voice is a hideous bellowing, with a tone much stronger and more hoarse than that of the bull; his legs are thin, his tail bare, and his physiognomy dark, like his hair and skin.

He differs externally from the ox chiefly in the color of his hide; and this is easily perceived under the hair, with which he is but sparingly furnished. His body is like-

wise thicker and shorter than that of the ox; his legs are longer, and proportionably much less; the horns not so round, black, and partly compressed, with a tuft of hair frizzled over his forehead; his hide is likewise thicker and harder than that of the ox; his flesh is black and hard, and not only disagreeable to the taste, but to the smell; the milk of the female is not so good as that of the cow; nevertheless she yields a greater quantity. In the hot countries of the eastern continent, almost all the cheese is made of buffalo's milk. The flesh of the young buffalo, though killed during the suckling time, is not good. The hide alone is of more value than all the rest of the beast, whose tongue is the only part that is fit to eat. This hide is firm, light, and almost impenetrable. As these animals, in general, are larger and stronger than the oxen, they are very serviceable in the plough; they draw well, but do not carry burdens; they are led by means of a ring passed through the nose. Two buffaloes harnessed, or rather chained, to a wagon, will draw as much as four strong horses.

There are a great number of wild buffaloes in the countries of Africa and India, which are watered with many rivers, and furnished with large meadows. These wild buffaloes go in droves, and make great havoc in cultivated lands; but they never attack the human species, and will not run at them, unless they are wounded, when they are very dangerous; for they make directly at their enemy, throw him down, and trample him to death under their feet; nevertheless, they are greatly terrified at the sight of fire, and are displeased at a red color.

Although the buffalo is, at this present time, common in Greece, and tame in Italy, it was neither known by the Greeks nor Romans; for it never had a name in the language of these people. The word *buffalo* even indicates a strange origin, not to be derived either from the Greek or Latin tongues. In effect, this animal is originally a native of the hottest countries of Africa and India, and was not transported and naturalized in Italy till towards the seventh century. The buffalo of the United States is properly called *bison*.



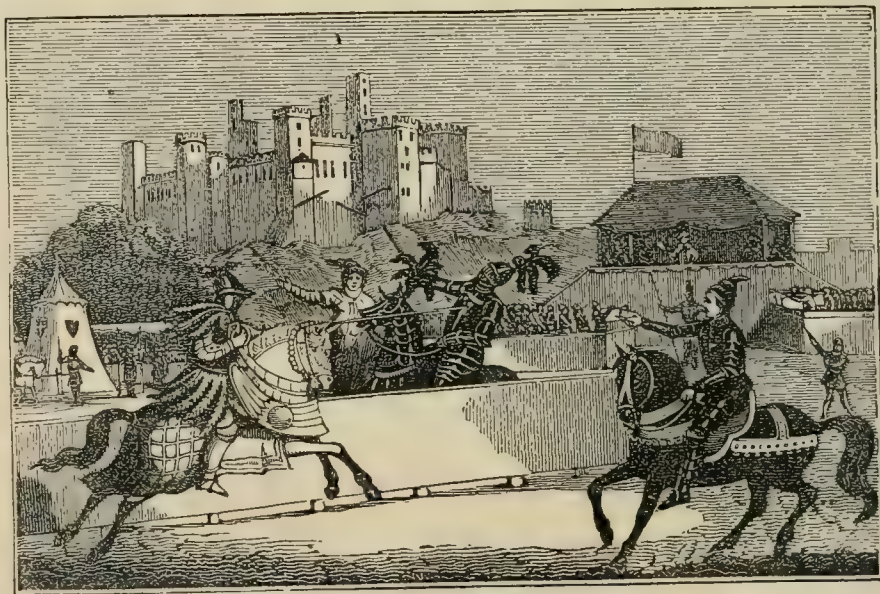
THE LLAMA.

THE height of this animal is about four feet; its body, comprehending the neck and the head, is five or six feet long; its neck alone is near three feet. The head is small and well proportioned, the eyes large, the nose somewhat long. The ears are four inches long, and move with great agility. The tail is seldom above eight inches long, small, straight, and a little turned up at the

end. It is cloven-footed, like the ox; but the hoof has a kind of spear-like appendage behind, which assists the animal to move and support itself over precipices and rugged ways. The back is clothed with a short wool, as is the crupper and tail; but it is very long on the belly and sides. These animals differ in color; some are white, others black, but most of them brown.

They are gentle and phlegmatic, and do everything with the greatest leisure and caution. When they stop on their journeys, they bend their knees very cautiously, in order to lower their bodies without disordering their load. As soon as they hear their driver whistle, they rise up again with the same precaution, and proceed on their journey. They feed, as they go along, on the grass they meet with in their way, but never eat in the night, making use of that time to ruminate. The llama sleeps, like the camel, with its feet folded under its belly, and ruminates in that posture. When overloaded or fatigued, it falls on its belly, and will not rise, though its driver strikes it with his utmost force.

Peru, according to Gregory de Bolivar, is the true and native country of the llamas; they are conducted into other provinces, as Chili, Columbia, &c., where they are less used. But in Peru, from Potosi to Caraccas, these animals are found in great numbers, and make the chief riches of the Indians and Spaniards, who rear them. Their flesh is excellent food; their hair, or rather wool, may be spun into beautiful clothing; and they are capable of carrying heavy loads in the most rugged and dangerous ways. The strongest of them will travel with two hundred or two hundred and fifty pounds' weight on their backs.



TOURNAMENTS.

THE tournament was a species of amusement peculiar to the middle ages. It has its name from the parties marching to the ends of the enclosure, and then *turning*, in French, *tournant*, and rushing to the attack. Upon some level spot, environed by swelling bluffs or hills, there was first an oblong enclosure made with palisades. It had an entrance at each end, seats built above the barrier all around, and a sort of throne, or raised seat, and platform, in the middle of one side, at about the height of the horse's head.

The challenging party appeared, with tents pitched, perhaps, at one end of the

enclosure. Stout men at arms walked as guards around the lists. When the spectators were all seated, the most honored person present, from his throne, ordered the heralds to proclaim the nature of the combat, its weapons, and conditions, and to forbid all interference.

Sometimes a single knight challenged any knight of Christendom, or Heathendom, to break a lance with him in honor of his "ladye love." That is, the challenger appeared with horse, armor and weapons, as in battle, and maintained the superiority of his mistress, and that all others were her inferiors; and then he threw down his glove.

He who accepted the challenge, rode forward, took up the glove upon his lance, and depositing it with the lord of the lists, took his place, armed and equipped, at the other end of the enclosure.

At the word of command from the herald, each laid his lance in rest, and charged full against his adversary, endeavoring to unhorse him; or, if the combat was a *l'outrance*, attempting to pierce him through and put him at his mercy. The spectators, who were highborn ladies, as well as men, applauded every brave blow; and the victor received from a queen of beauty, appointed by the lord of the lists, or chosen by general consent, the prize of valor. This was a ribbon, a wreath, or a scarf, or some other token which the knight thenceforth wore conspicuously, and it was often adopted into his coat of arms.

Sometimes many combatants fought on each side; the knights on horseback and their squires on foot. Sometimes the combat was on foot between single knights; and this is the origin of the duel of modern times. Usually the spears were blunted or disarmed, and the combat was in sport. The horse and armor of the vanquished belonged to the victor, and were generally redeemed at a round price in money.

The tournay, or *tournee*, was invented, and its laws fixed, in France, as the name implies, though the Arabs of Yemen probably developed its first ideas in very early times, and the Arabs of Spain introduced them to Europe. It had quite a good effect on the manners of a rough age, and was part and parcel of chivalry, assisting to give it that brilliant character which makes it so interesting a portion of history.



CALIFORNIA.

CALIFORNIA, or New or Upper California, is the name now used to designate a vast tract of country on the Pacific Ocean, extending from $32^{\circ} 50'$ to 42° , of latitude, and from longitude 107° to 124° , an area said to be nearly half a million of square miles in extent, and nearly as large as that occupied by all the states east of the Ohio and Mississippi,—and more than twice the size of France.

Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of reli-

gion. They were well made, strong men, but extremely pusillanimous, inconstant, stupid, and insensible. Each nation was an assemblage of several cottages, more or less numerous, whose people were mutually confederated by alliances, but without any chief. They were strangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dress was worn by the men; but the women made use of some coverings, and were even fond of ornamenting themselves with pearls and such other trinkets as the country afforded.

BRIDGES 12

The Gold-diggers in California.



What most displayed their ingenuity, was the construction of their fishing-nets, which are said by the Jesuits to have even exceeded in goodness those made in Europe. They were made, by the women, of a coarse kind of flax, procured from some plants which grow there. Their houses were built of branches and leaves of trees, though many were only enclosures of earth and stone, raised half a yard high, without any covering, and even then were so small, that the people could not stretch themselves at length in them. In winter, they dwelt underground, in caves, either natural or artificial. They seem, on the whole, to have resembled the natives of the Pacific islands, more than the sterner races of our western wilds.

In 1526, Cortez, having reduced and settled Mexico, attempted the conquest of California; but was obliged to return to quell an insurrectionary spirit in the former country. Some other attempts were made by his officers, but all unsuccessful; and this valuable coast was long neglected by the Spaniards, who have never, in fact, developed its resources, or even begun to make it what it is evidently destined to become, the focus of the boundless commerce of the Pacific.

In 1595, a galleon was sent to make discoveries on the shore, but was lost. Seven years after, the Count de Monterey, the Viceroy of New Spain, sent Sebastian Biscayno, on the same design, with two ships and a tender, but he made no discovery of importance. In 1684, the Marquis de Laguna, also Viceroy of New Spain, despatched two ships with a tender, to make discoveries on the Lake of California, as the gulf was called. He returned with an indifferent account, but said Old or Lower California was not an island.

In 1697, the Spaniards being discouraged by their losses and disappointments, the Jesuits solicited and obtained permission to undertake the conquest of California. They arrived among the savages with curiosities that might amuse them, corn for their food, and clothes for which they could not but perceive the necessity. The hatred these people bore to the Spanish name could not support itself against these demonstrations of benevolence. They testified their acknowledgment as much as their want of sensibility and their inconstancy would permit.

These faults of character were partly overcome by their religious instructors, who pursued their project with a warmth and resolution peculiar to the society. They made

themselves carpenters, masons, weavers, and husbandmen; and by these means succeeded in imparting a knowledge of, and in some measure a taste for, the useful arts, to these savage tribes, who were all successively formed into one body. They grew fruit, pulse, and grain, — each hut having its field, — and reared domestic animals. Yet, so improvident were they, that they would squander in a day, or gamble away at a sitting, the earnings of a year, if the missionary did not take charge of and distribute it. To enforce the few and simple laws, the missionary chose the most intelligent person of the village, who was empowered to whip and imprison, — their only punishments.

In 1745, the Jesuits had, in all California, forty-three villages, separated from each other by the barrenness of the soil and the want of water. In 1813, it followed the fortunes of Mexico, in declaring its independence of Spain; in 1836, it asserted its independence of Mexico, but held a kind of dependence upon it afterwards. In 1846, it was taken military possession of by the United States, and on May 30th, 1848, it became ours by the ratification of the Mexican treaty.

In 1841, all its exports and imports were something less than a million. Such has been the change since it came under the power of the Americans, that it is calculated the duties alone, if collected at the custom-houses, for 1849, would amount to that sum. Its exports, in 1841, were hides, salmon, tallow, skins, furs, wheat, &c.; its imports, cottons, velvets, tea, &c. Since the discovery of its abounding in gold, hundreds of vessels, with thousands of emigrants, are pouring in, and it is asserted, that, what with outfits of emigrants, value of vessels employed, and their cargoes, &c. &c., the capital now embarked in the California trade verges on twenty millions, and a railroad to the shores of the Pacific is seriously talked of. In 1845, California's chief wealth was live stock. Now its gold and quicksilver are deemed so valuable, that the four millions already taken from them is but an insignificant item of their expected yield!

A traveller, who visited the country some years since, says that little advantage is obtained from their vast number of domestic animals, beyond the value of the hides and fat. The management of the dairy is wholly unknown. There is hardly any such thing in use as butter or cheese, and what little is made is of the very worst description. The art of making butter and cheese seems to be unknown in all the Americas

inhabited by the Spaniards and their descendants; what they call by these names is quite different from ours. Both the butter and cheese, particularly the former, are execrable compounds of sour, coagulated milk and its cream mixed together. The butter is made of the cream, or top of the milk, mixed with a large proportion of the sour or coagulated part, and beat up together by the hand, and without a churn, till something of the consistency of butter is produced. It is of a dirty gray color, and of a very disagreeable flavor, which in a short time is rendered still worse, by its tendency to get rancid, in which state it is almost always found before it arrives at the place of sale, and is, of course, intolerable to palates used to that of a better sort.

The cheese is made of the remainder of the sour milk, or sometimes of the whole milk and cream; in either case, it is made up in small moulds, containing about half a pound, and undergoes no pressure except by the hand. It is always mixed with a large proportion of salt, and is of a soft, crumbling consistency. It is truly incredible, that from such an immense number of cows as are contained in Upper California, no attempt should have been made to reap advantage from their milk. Certainly the American women, who have of late emigrated to California, will take this matter in hand, and as they cannot dig for gold, nor wash it from the soil, they will find means to win their just share of it, by a tempting product of rich yellow cheese and golden butter.

California enjoyed its best days when it was chiefly under the power of the priests belonging to the mission, during the government of old Spain. These missions were twenty-one in number, in Upper California, and the priests who conducted them had gathered the Indians about them and under their influence, forming a kind of distinct families. The principles of Christianity were taught them, and various arts of civilized life; industry, honesty, and piety were inculcated by precept and example; and a very pleasing condition of things developed itself. Since Mexican independence, and the consequent destruction or derangement of these establishments, the country has been miserably governed by a succession of miscreants, whose history is as obscure as it would be disagreeable. Suffice it to say, that all classes, except the governor and his soldiers, welcomed the United States troops as their protectors from the horrors of ultimate anarchy and despotism.

There is no country which offers a greater

diversity in surface, soil, and climate, than Upper California. In its natural features, it has all the contrasts of lofty ranges of mountains, confined valleys, and broad open plains. Along the coast it is high and hilly, from Cape Mendocino, to 32° of lat., and ten to twenty miles broad. This is sandy or rocky, with scanty soil, and unfit for cultivation, except in the small valleys. But it is excellently adapted to herds and flocks, and is at present the feeding ground of numerous deer, elk, &c., for which the short sweet grass and wild oats afford plenty of delicious nutriment. The climate of the coast is very blustering and disagreeable, being subject to cold, damp, north-west winds, so that it is colder in summer than in winter.

Next come the valleys of San Juan, the Sacramento, and Buenaventura. The San Juan valley is twenty miles long by twelve broad, and lays just back of Monterey, and the high coast to the south-east of it. It has the most salubrious climate in the world, resembling that of Andalusia, in Spain. The breezes of the sea lose their rawness, but retain their freshness; the weather is equable, the heats temperate, and the soil fertile, — producing wheat, rye, corn, oats, grapes, olives, — in fine, all the fruits of the temperate zone, and many of the tropical. Good wine is made, and brandy in large quantities. This was the seat of the far-famed "Missions."

The Sacramento valley is fifteen to twenty miles wide. With the San Juan valley, it is the garden of California; having similar products in abundance, and excellent pasturage, though in dry seasons the cattle suffer. One hundred and twenty-five for one of corn has been known to be produced on its rich soil; eighty for one is a fair crop. Corn, potatoes, peas, beans, and all vegetables, grow luxuriously. It extends far north, and on the south continues in the Buenaventura valley.

The Buenaventura valley is watered by the Joaquin; it runs parallel with the San Juan, to which it is inferior in soil and climate. Enclosed as it is between two ridges, the heats are here oppressive, constant, and greater, on the average, than in many tropical spots. A north-east wind is never known. In this valley the Indians reside almost entirely. It extends far south to Mount Bernardine, in 34° lat.

East of this great valley of the Sacramento and Buenaventura, lies the Sierra, a low range of mountains, a continuation of the Cascade range of Oregon. Some of its summits are capped with snow; generally, it has

about 2500 feet elevation, and gradually declines into hills. The Sierra is much broken, often barren and sandy. In places, it is covered with cedar, pine, or oak, but generally presents few inducements to settlers. The mountains of the streams of the Joaquin, are well wooded with oak at the base, red California cedar higher up, and then pines to the region of snow. The eastern side of the ridge is too deficient in moisture to be forested.

Beyond the Sierra, the country is little known; it seems to be divided into two vast

regions, characterized by distinct features. In the northern part is a frightful desert, said to be three hundred miles long and two hundred broad; a vast expanse of sand and gravel, almost entirely destitute of wood and water. It is impassable at all seasons, on account of its extreme dryness, and lack of suitable nourishment for animals; the trip from Santa Fé to California, by the regular trail, indeed, can only be undertaken in fall or spring, when the ground is moistened by the annual rains, and the transient streams appear awhile upon the sand.



On the eastern and southern extremities of this desolate waste, in a country scarcely less forbidding, dwell the miserable tribes of the Digger Indians. The landscape here is highly undulating and varied by conical hills, some of which are mere heaps of naked sand, or baked clay of a whitish hue; others are vast piles of granite rock, alike destitute of vegetation or timber; while yet others are clothed with a scanty herbage, and occasional clusters of stunted pines and cedars. Now and then, but very seldom, a diminutive plain greets the eye, — amidst the desolation around, — with its rank grasses and blushing prairie flowers. The water-courses are mere beds of sand, skirted with sterile bottoms of stiff clay and gravel, and afford permanent streams only at their heads, while, for nearly the entire year, both dew and rain are unknown.

The Digger Indians of this region have but one species of game, a small rabbit, of the skins of which they make their whole clothing; the rest of their food consists of insects, roots, and seeds of grass and herbs. They spread out a dampened skin, or a fresh peeled bark over the ant-hills, upon which the insects swarm, when they are shaken

into a tight sack, and soon die; they are then thoroughly sun-dried, and laid away for food, and eaten uncooked. These people live in holes dug in the sand, or in rude lodges made of wild sage stalks, where they remain in a semi-torpid state, only crawling out at the urgent calls of nature, or to make a little fire in their lairs. In spring, they come forth emaciated and weakened, — a relief from misery seeming to be all their ambition. The trappers here have been in the habit of shooting them, if, impelled by hunger, they attempt to kill their animals, so that they now flee from the sight of a white man. They never go to war, and their weapons are but clubs, and small bows and arrows of reeds. When pains are taken with them, however, they show themselves capable of rapid improvement.

South of this desert, to the Mexican line, and still east of the Sierra, is a broad waste of country, almost unknown. The hills are mostly clothed with grass and timber; the landscape is "highly picturesque and pleasingly diversified with mountains, hills, plains, and valleys, with every variety of climate and soil. The Virgin river and its branches water the eastern part of it; and though



Black Tailed Deer.

little or no rain falls in the summer months, the night dews are so copious, as, in a great degree, to supply the defect. The soil of the valleys is one to three feet in depth, and very fertile; the rocky hills are excellent for grazing; copper, iron, coal, salt, and sulphur are found; game is abundant,—antelopes, black and white-tailed deer, elk, bear,

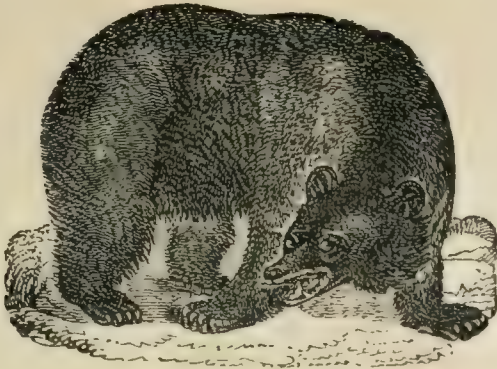


Buffalo attacked by Wolves.

buffaloes, mountain sheep, and vast numbers of water-fowl; large herds of wild horses and cattle are not unfrequent; timber is too scarce, though little is needed for fuel, as the climate is so mild, and not much for building and fencing; most kinds of fruits are indigenous; grapes are in profusion; red clover, luxuriant oats, flax, and onions, grow spontaneously.

The two chief forks of the Colorado rise respectively at the foot of Long's Peak, in Nebraska territory, about lat. 40°, and at the foot of Fremont's Peak, in the south-

east corner of Oregon, in about lat. 43°; the sources are three hundred miles apart, and the river is five or fifteen hundred miles long. It is navigable about one hundred miles. For two hundred miles from its mouth, its valley averages from five to fifteen miles in breadth. Then, for five or six hundred miles, as is said, it presents an almost continuous gorge of overhanging rocks, from fifteen to a thousand feet high, interrupting the river with numerous cascades, cataracts, and rapids, and sometimes almost concealing its bed, so that one may



Bear.

jump across the chasm. This river, as well as the Gila, and most others, is full of fish, as well as the Gulf, which has lobsters, crabs, clams, and especially oysters, one kind of which affords the pearl.

Much choice land is found in the valleys, but the high grounds and hills are rather too arid. The table lands and mountains on both sides, as a whole, disclose a dreary prospect. Now the traveller meets with a wide reach of naked rock, paving the surface to the exclusion of grass, shrubs, or trees,—now a narrow fissure, filled with detritus and earth, sustains a few stunted pines,—now a spread of hard, sun-baked clay, refuses root to aught earth-growing,—now a small space of saline efflorescence obtrudes its snowy incrustations; then comes a broad area, clothed with thin, coarse grass; an opening vale next greets the eye, with a generous growth and fertile soil; a beautiful grove of stately pines, cedars, and pinions, rises in the back ground; a still larger, more expanded, and exceedingly lovely valley, skirts the banks of some bounding stream, and delights the fancy with its smiling flowers and luxuriant verdure.

Here a huge mountain rears itself in majesty—now piling heaps upon heaps of naked granite, limestone, sandstone, and basalt, variegated and parti-colored,—now, thickly studded with lateral pines, cedars, pinions, and hemlocks,—then again denuded, till at last its sharpened peaks pierce the clouds. Then a lesser coniform elevation, of the continuous chain, is mantled in living green, while by its side is another, marked with utter desolation. The valleys of the Uintah, lat. $40\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, &c., are broad, fertile, and tolerably well timbered. Grass continues green nearly all winter, and mountain game is plenty.

The landscape of the Gila river, the south

boundary of California, is similar to that of the Virgin river, above described, though the soil is not generally so sandy, and the country is more rough and broken. The bottom lands are broad, rich, and well timbered; vegetation is lusty and exuberant; many an Eden revels here in perennial spring or unfading summer. Winter is but two or three months of rainy and damp weather; fruits and grains abound; the atmosphere is highly salubrious, as in all eastern California; the natives are friendly, partly civilized, and grow corn, melons, beans, potatoes, &c.; they live in wooden huts, coated with earth, and present a promising field for the good missionary of the gospel, with all his improving influences.

The Nabajos, or Navihos Indians are a very interesting people, on the south-east frontier of California; they have a civilization of their own, similar to that of their ancestors, the early Mexicans, or Aztecs, as they have never been subdued by the Spaniards, whom they hate and detest, and will not allow to set foot in their territory. Their country is shut in by high mountains, accessible only through a few easily defended passes. It abounds in gold and minerals. The people live in stone houses, cultivate vegetables and grain, raise horses, cattle, and sheep; make butter and cheese, and spin and weave. Their blankets are superior to those of their Spanish neighbors, and are woven so as to be impervious to water, being sometimes used to carry it. Their police is adapted to the common weal; lewdness is punished; dishonesty checked by penalties; industry encouraged, and hospitality commonly practised. They kill their men prisoners, reserving the women and children. They are brave and daring, often carrying off vast herds and flocks from the Spaniards.

The country about Salt Lake remains to

be described. This large body of water, though receiving several streams, is without an outlet, like the similar salt lakes of Central Asia. The mineral and vegetable salts constantly dissolving in it, with the immense evaporation of so dry a climate, account for these peculiarities. Several large islands dot its surface. From the southern extremity of Utah Lake, (an expanse of twenty-five or thirty by ten miles,) which communicates with it by a long strait, to its northern extreme, it is about 130 miles. At its widest part, it is fifty miles across; it was formerly thought to be much larger. Taken as a whole, the vicinity of the lake holds out strong inducements to settlers, and can support a dense population.

The largest of its rivers is the Big Bear, a stream 250 to 300 miles long, rising near the South Pass, and 200 yards wide at its mouth. The valleys of this and the few small streams emptying into the lake, have a very rich soil, and are well timbered; the region around the lake, with its plains, highlands, marshes, and mountains, presents a most variegated scenery; there is sufficient timber, plenty of game, and the soil is prolific in many indigenous plants of service to man.

It is on the fine valley of the Bear river, that the sect of the Mormons have taken refuge. During 1847 and 1848, they have collected here some seven or eight thousand souls, who have built houses, opened farms, have already a surplus produce, and are walling in an area of twelve miles in extent. Here they intend to build anew their temple, and invite their fellow-believers to join them. It is said that this sect, amounting already to some fifty thousand, in England and the United States, are gathering towards this point. This busy people thus form a focus of civilization, half-way between our outskirts and the great regions of Oregon and California, whose destinies are so full of grandeur. It cannot fail to have a fine influence on the wealth and resources of our country, and being on the route to the Pacific, must immeasurably benefit emigration, and reduce the perils of the wilderness, assisting to bind the vast proportions of our Union into an harmonious whole.

The towns of California are not large. Puebla de los Angeles, in about lat. 34°, was the largest, previous to our conquest of the country. It is pleasantly situated, and had about 1500 inhabitants. Along the coast, beginning at the south, of the ports more or less convenient and safe, San Diego, San Pedro, Santa Barbara, Monterey, and Ross

or Bodega, may be mentioned. But San Francisco Bay, opening in lat. 37° 40', affords an unrivalled harbor, capable of containing all the navies of the earth, to ride at anchor in safety. It contains three several bays, one within another, and connected by deep, narrow straits. All these are completely land-locked, and have an area of twelve to fifteen miles either way.

The settlement of Yerba Buena, succeeded by the town of San Francisco,* just within this bay, on the south, is described, in 1841, as consisting of one large frame building, a store, billiard-room, and bar, a poop cabin of a ship, and a blacksmith's shop, with one or two out-buildings; now it contains thousands of busy people, from all parts of the known world, chiefly Yankees. Indeed, it is supposed there are, by this time, (1849,) 50,000 people in the territory, attracted by the wonderful discoveries of gold.

Vague notions of the existence of gold had from time to time been divulged, but it was not till 1848, that accident discovered the marvellous fact of its abundance. In that year, a Mr. Suter, a Swiss, formerly of the king's guard, in Paris, was settled near the mouth of the American fork of the Sacramento river, at the head of navigation, 150 miles from its mouth. Here he had founded New Helvetia, and obtained a grant of thirty miles round. He had sent some men to the upper part of the American fork, to clear out a mill race. The soil was washed down in the process, and some shining scales laid bare. These proved to be gold, and on investigation, not only the valley of this stream, but the beds of all the other streams running into the Sacramento, were found to have a soil full of gold, in minute scales and in bits, from a grain to many ounces in weight. New "placers," as the "washings," or dry "diggings" are

* St. Francisco is in lat. 35° 45' N. It is on a neck of land about five miles from the ocean. The site of the town is handsome and commanding, being an inclined plane of about a mile in extent, from the water's edge to the hills in the rear. Two points of land, one on each side, extending into the bay, form a crescent, or small bay, in the shape of a crescent, in front, which bears the name of the town. These points afford a fine view of the surrounding country—the snow-capped mountains in the distance—the green valleys beneath them—the beautiful, smooth, and unruffled bay in front and on either side, at once burst upon the eye. There is in front of the town, a small island, rising high above the surface of the bay, about two miles long and one wide, which is covered the greater part of the year with the most exuberant herbage, of untrodden freshness. The climate here is, in the winter, which is the rainy season, damp and chilly. During the balance of the year, it is dry, but chilly. There is but little variation in the atmosphere throughout the year, the thermometer ranging from fifty-five to seventy degrees Fahrenheit.

called, are constantly being discovered, and people have rushed to these hills from all quarters, with pans, tubs, pickaxes, shovels, hoes, filtering machines, and energetic sinews, till they have extracted, by digging and washing, previous to 1849, four millions of dollars' worth of the yellow treasure. Gold is now reported to be found over an extent of many hundred miles, and also on the Gila, and throughout the great central plateau, north and north-east of it.

In a favorable locality, the lucky finder of the placer will sift out hundreds of dollars' worth per day. Persons with not a shirt to their backs, and scarce a whole garment upon them, are seen with bags of gold in their hands. Prices of everything went up at once to an enormous rate; laborers' wages became 8 or 10 dollars a day; cooks at the diggings, \$100 per day; clerks, \$1500 to \$6000 per annum, &c. &c. As all the productive industry of the country is now turned to gold digging, and as such vast numbers of consumers are flocking in from all parts, prices continue to range high, for every article of necessity, although such large quantities of goods have been sent.

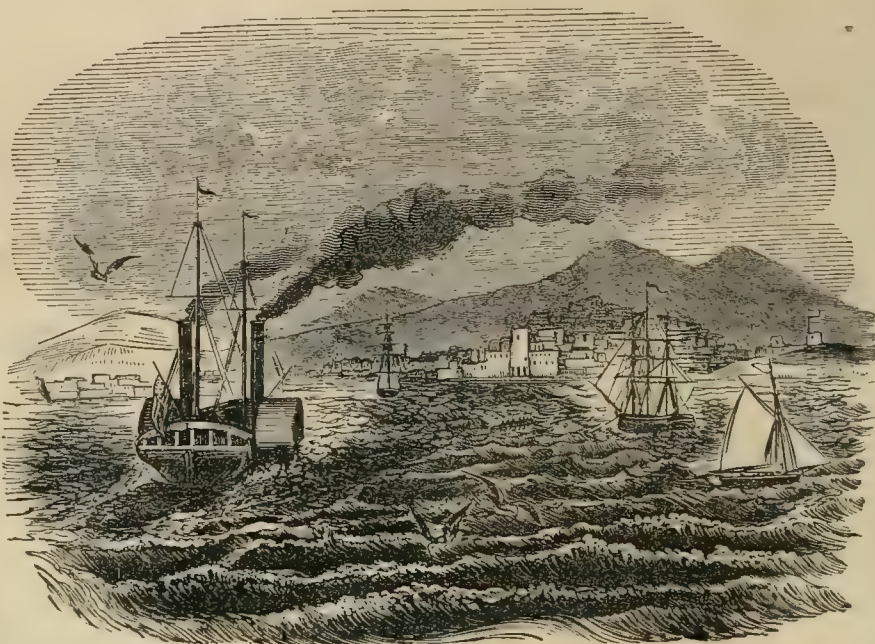
Many comical as well as tragical scenes are exhibited in the general excitement consequent upon this strange state of things. Outrages upon person and property are said to be constantly recurring, as there is no accredited government; for the United States have not yet extended their laws over the territory, and the Mexican laws are supposed to be in abeyance—at least, there seems no power but the mob that can enforce order. But these accounts are doubtless much exaggerated, and the emigrants who have gone from the United States, are mostly of a very high order of character, for vigor, enterprise, intelligence, and morality. They will not remain long without a good government. In fact, incipient measures have already been taken to call together a convention in the early part of 1849, to frame a government, and our next congress will doubtless be better prepared than the last, to second the civil and political wishes of our distant fellow-citizens, upon the Pacific.

San Francisco is about 2700 miles in a straight line from New York, and 1500 from the western boundary of the States. The passage by the way of Cape Horn is more than twelve times as far. The land route is a dangerous journey of four months. The best route for wagons from the United States, is through the "South Pass," in lat.

42° 20', where the Sweet water tributary of the north fork of the Platte, interlocks with the north fork of the Colorado; thence to the Great Salt Lake, by Bear river valley; thence the emigrant may direct his course to any part of the country. Near lat. 37°, is another pass, by way of the Santa Fé trail, but it is very difficult for wagons, and should only be travelled on horseback. One or two other passes are spoken of, further south. Vast numbers of people are collecting on the frontiers, to take these routes across, though many must inevitably be exposed to a great deal of suffering, as has already occurred to several parties. Some rash parties, overwhelmed by the snows of the mountains, or bewildered on the trackless and arid plains, have been reduced to the direful necessity of feeding on their companions, who died of hunger and fatigue, or were killed for the horrible purpose!

Of the other routes pursued, to reach the Pacific from the United States, some are across Mexico, from Matamoras, through the northern states to Mazatlan, or San Blas, or by Vera Cruz and the capital, to these ports, or Acapulco. Others prefer to cross the isthmus of Tehuantepec, sailing up the Coazacualco river to the city of that name; thence along the river, across the ridge, and down the valley of the stream that runs by Tehuantepec, 120 or 150 miles to the Pacific Ocean. This route is now surveying for a railroad, and bids fair to be very convenient.

Another route, likely to be the favorite one when the steam lines upon the Pacific are fully established, is that by the way of Chagres, thence up the Chagres river to Gorgona, thence twenty miles across the isthmus of Darien, or Panama, to Panama, a fine town on the Pacific. This road is now sufficiently rough, expensive, and vexatious, but it is under survey for a railroad, and such regulations will doubtless soon be adopted, as will give every facility to travel. A line of monthly steamers connects New York with Chagres, and Panama with San Francisco, and another line is to run thence to China. English steamers already run up and down the Pacific coast to Panama. Chagres seems to be a miserable place, as well as Gorgona, but Panama is in a lovely climate, beautifully built, with an excellent population, and the government of New Grenada seems to be well and wisely disposed to make this isthmus the great thoroughfare of the Atlantic and Pacific worlds.



St. Francisco.



Panama.



THE FIRST FRENCH REVOLUTION.

THE French Revolution commenced when, on the opening of the *States General*, (a convention from the nobility, clergy, and commons,) the commons were ready to seize the legislative authority, by merging the other two classes, and constituting themselves the National Assembly, one and indivisible, without distinction of ranks or bodies. Bailly was the President of this assembly, and Mirabeau the popular leader. The true business of the assembly was to conquer liberty from unjust power, and equality from iniquitous laws; instead of which, it usurped power, and inflicted injustice, though adopting some salutary reforms.

The causes of the revolution, separate from the intellectual and moral excitement of the age, were the oppressive taxes, resulting from long wars and an extravagant court, arbitrary arrests and punishment by the government; various abuses of authority; vexations by the provincial governors; ruinous delays of justice; the insolence of a weak-minded nobility—in fine, a most irritating inequality of conditions, rights, privileges and burdens—and all this in glaring contrast with the freedom and equality just achieved for America, and partly by the arms of Frenchmen!

The power of the crown had swallowed up, long before, the feudal sovereignties of the nobles; the progress of wealth had raised up a large class of such as had ability and property without that rank, of whose privileges they were jealous, and whose follies they could no longer endure. These were

able, therefore, to instigate the masses, by acting (through an intelligence now more generally diffused than ever before) on their already excited sense of wrong. But the whirlwind of passion could not be quelled, and the stormy waves for a while submerged everything in one wild anarchy.

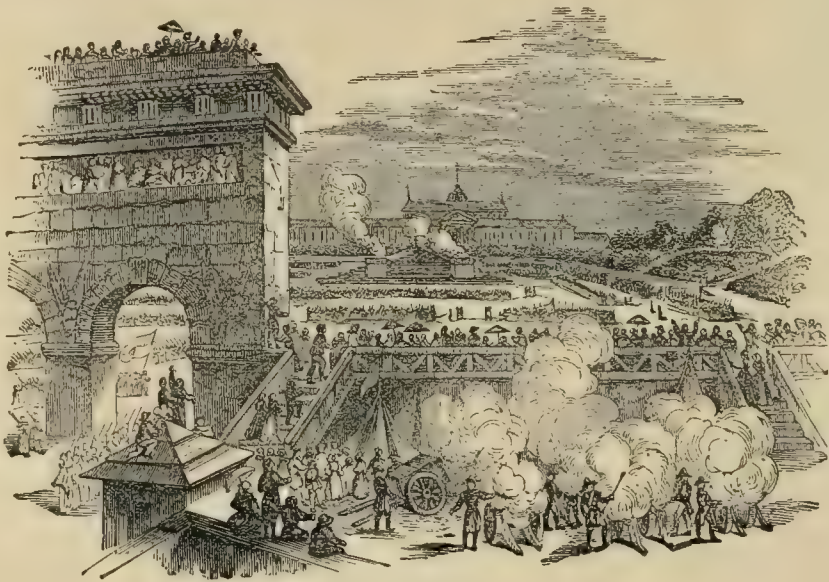
The *National Assembly* decreed its own sovereignty over the nation, placing under its dependence all the privileged orders and the king at their head. It abolished the privileges of the nobles and clergy, and the relics of the feudal system, in all its branches, discontinuing the three orders of clergy, nobles and commons. It established the freedom of the press, and of conscience in matters of religion. It confiscated the church lands; suppressed the monasteries; and divided France into eighty-three departments, the more rigidly and impartially to administer the laws and government. It completed a constitution establishing a limited monarchy and equality of ranks, which was signed by the good king, Louis XVI.; and on the 30th September, 1791, the assembly dissolved.

On the 1st of October, the *Legislative Assembly* met, in accordance with the provision of the Constitution, and to carry that instrument into effect. The Jacobin club (so called from its place of meeting, a convent of suppressed Jacobin monks) gained ascendancy over the assembly and governed the capital. On the 21st September, 1792, the *National Convention*, a new body, sat, and at once abolished the royal government,

declaring France a Republic. They arraigned the king, and by a majority of twenty-six, in seven hundred and twenty-one votes, sentenced him to death, and he was executed January 21st, 1793.

Desèzes, before sentence was passed, arose and thus eloquently defended the king:—"Ascending the throne at the age of twenty, Louis carried with him there an example of morals, of justice, and of economy. He had no weaknesses, no corrupting passions, and he was the constant friend

of his people. The people desired that a disastrous impost should be abolished, and Louis abolished it; the people asked for the destruction of servitudes, and Louis destroyed them; they demanded reforms, he consented; they wished to change the laws, he agreed to it; the people required that several millions of Frenchmen should recover their rights, and these he restored to them; the people asked for liberty, and he gave it."



Publishing the New Constitution at Paris.

The National Convention published a new Constitution, completely democratic. It lodged the executive power in a Committee of Public Safety. The passions of the mob had been already unchained at the attack on the palace of the Tuileries, the massacre of its Swiss guard, and the sacking of the palace; their thirst for blood and love of violence had been whetted also by other feats of lawlessness. Men of tiger instincts arose to control this tide of brutality, and direct it into such channels as their selfishness, wickedness or fanaticism found for it. The Revolutionary Tribunal was instituted, the Reign of Terror commenced, previous to the death of the king. Intimidated by menaces from without and from within, the Assembly appointed a tribunal for the trial of those offenders who had stood against the mob, of which the prisons were full by the act of the town council of Paris. The victims selected were chiefly of

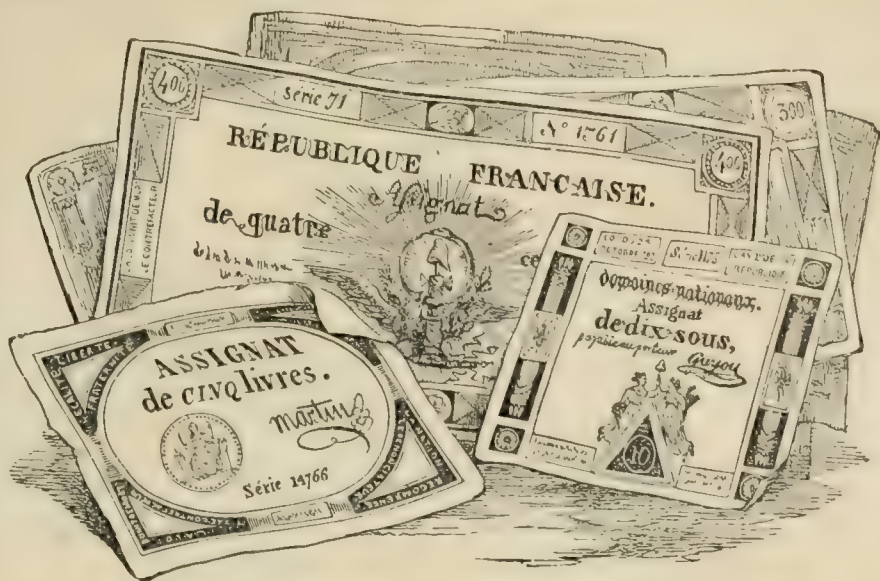
the noblesse and the dissenting clergy. On the 2d September, 1792, a band of three hundred assassins, paid by the magistrates and spurred to their ferocious work by ardent spirits and money, broke into the prisons, and dragged the prisoners forth to the tribunal, which sentenced them, and they were then thrust out to the mob to be massacred with every outrage brutality could devise. About five thousand persons thus perished. This was at the very time when the armies of the Republic were most gloriously resisting an overwhelming invasion at the frontier.

The Assembly could do nothing, domineered over as it was by two fierce factions, the Girondists, with their leaders, Brissot, Vergniaud and Condorcet, and the "Mountain," the most violent revolutionists, whose leaders were the unparalleled miscreants, Robespierre, Danton and Maret. These latter soon brought their opponents to the guil-

lotine, and were guilty of the most horrid massacres. Queen Antoinette on the one hand, and the vile Duke of Orleans on the other, were executed by them. No one felt safe; anxiety, gloom and terror were everywhere. None knew when he or she might become obnoxious to the new tyrants.

The convention suppressed the Christian religion; decreed that Liberty, Equality

and Reason should alone be worshipped as deities in France; established a republican calendar, changing the names and days of the month; abolished the Sabbath, making every tenth day a holiday. instead; plundered churches, and melted their bells into cannon — besides other freaks of phrenzy or fanaticism.



Paper money, issued during the First French Revolution.

The dominant faction soon split into two most violent parties, of which Danton headed the one, and Robespierre the other. Marat was slain by a female hand, which posterity is yet doubtful whether to call the hand of an assassin or of a heroine. Robespierre obtained the ascendant, and his worst enemies were decapitated; he himself was guillotined, on a charge of tyranny, in July, 1794. The Jacobins were soon after suppressed. Volumes upon volumes have been filled with the details of the horrors of these revolutionary years; and though it is a painful record, yet there can be no doubt that, spite of all its excesses, the French Revolution advanced the nation very much in the path of Christian liberty. Our space restricts us to noticing further only a few of the most important events.

In 1795 the third constitution was proclaimed, vesting the executive in a *Directory* of five. Four different constitutions, in fact, were adopted from 1791 to 1799. By the last, the power was vested in three *Consuls*, Bonaparte, Cambaceres, and Le Brun.

In 1792 occurred the first coalition of all Europe against France, to restore the nobil-

ity who, as "emigrants," had deserted their country in the hour of her utmost need. This invasion was gloriously repelled by the French people under Dumourier; who also conquered the Netherlands in this year, and afterwards, Holland, Switzerland, and part of Germany. In 1796, Italy was to be fraternized, and the command of the French army, sent to conquer it into liberty, was given to Napoleon Bonaparte, then in his 27th year. He freed Italy from the Austrians by a series of astonishing successes, obliged them to peace, and to give the Milanese territory to France.

On the 9th November, 1798, after Napoleon had returned from the conquest of Egypt, he, by the aid of Fouché, Cambaceres, Talleyrand, Lucien Bonaparte, and Siéyes, abolished the Directory, and under a new constitution procured himself to be made First Consul. The Revolution was now at an end; with despotic force he gathered together the mangled limbs of France and built them into a Colossus, which soon bestrode all Europe, crowning and uncrowning kings at its pleasure.



MONTEZUMA.

MONTEZUMA was Emperor of Mexico when Cortez invaded that country in 1518; invited thither, as he pretended, by the inhabitants, whose children, Montezuma, in the blindness of his superstition, had sacrificed to idols. Cortez arrived at a time, also, when several of the chiefs were disaffected to their emperor.

The warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder with which they were armed, the wooden castles on which they had crossed the ocean, the armor with which they were covered, the victories they gained wherever they went — all these circumstances, added to that foolish disposition to wonder, which always characterizes simple people, so operated upon the minds of the Mexicans, that when Cortez arrived at the city of Mexico, he was received by Montezuma as his master, and by the inhabitants as a god.

At first, they fell down in the streets when even a Spanish valet passed by; but by degrees, the court of Montezuma grew familiar with the strangers, and ventured to treat them as men. Montezuma, unable to expel them by force, endeavored to inspire

them with confidence at the capitol, by expressions of friendship, while he employed secret means to weaken their power in other quarters. With this view, one of his generals, who had private orders to that purpose, attacked a party of the Spaniards who were stationed at Vera Cruz; and, although his troops were unsuccessful, yet three or four of the Spaniards were killed. The head of one of them was brought to Montezuma.

In consequence of this, Cortez did what has been reckoned one of the boldest political strokes that was ever struck. He ran to the palace, followed by fifty of his troops, and, by persuasion and threats, carried the emperor prisoner into the Spanish quarters. He afterwards obliged him to deliver up those who had attacked his troops at Vera Cruz; and like a general who punishes a common soldier, he loaded Montezuma with chains. He next obliged him to acknowledge himself, in public, the vassal of Charles V., King of Spain, &c.; and in name of tribute for this homage Cortez received 600,000 merks (75000 lbs.) of pure gold — about fourteen millions of dollars.

Montezuma soon afterwards fell a sacrifice to his submission to the Spaniards. He and Alvaro, the lieutenant of Cortez, were besieged in the palace by 200,000 Mexicans. Montezuma proposed to show himself to his subjects, that he might persuade them to desist from the attack. When the emperor appeared upon the walls, dressed in a robe sparkling with jewels, the people at first bowed in reverence; but when he spoke of the Spaniards as his friends, their feelings changed to those of contempt and indignation. They no longer considered him in any other light than as the slave of foreign conquerors, the confederate of their deadly enemies. In the midst of his speech

he received a blow from a stone which wounded him mortally, at the same time that the Mexicans discharged upon him a shower of arrows. He expired immediately, A. D. 1520.

From the little we know of him, and that only through his enemies, we should suppose this unfortunate emperor to have been both weak and tyrannical. He left two sons and three daughters, who embraced the Christian faith. The eldest received baptism, and obtained from Charles V. lands, revenues, and the title of Count de Montezuma. He died in 1608; and the family of this nobleman is now one of the most powerful in Spain.



ATTILA.

ATTILA succeeded his uncle, as King of the Huns, in 433, A. D. His residence was to the north of the upper part of the Theiss river, in Hungary. His palace was a great building of planks, of highly polished wood, and surmounted with towers. It was surrounded by a fence of similar materials, but more for ornament than defence.

In person Attila resembled the Kalmucks and Finns of the present day. He had a large head, a swarthy complexion, flat nose, small, sunken eyes, and a short, square body. His looks were fierce, his gait proud, and his deportment stern and haughty; yet he was merciful to a suppliant foe, and ruled his own people with justice and lenity.

At first Attila shared the throne with his brother, Bleda, and the Huns were then such a terror to the Emperor of Constantinople, that he paid them seven hundred

pounds of gold per annum to abstain from plundering the empire. In 442, however, the Huns ravaged Thrace and Illyria, and the weak emperor felt obliged to retire into Asia.

In 444, Attila murdered Bleda, saying it was by command of God. He was now sole master of a warlike people, and his unbounded and bloody ambition made him the terror of all nations; or, as he called himself, the *Scourge of God*. He ruled the Huns, Gepidae, Goths or Ostrogoths of Pannonia, the Suevi, Alans, Quadi, Marcomanni, and some Franks,—all barbarians, and hovering over the Roman empire, like vultures round a carcass. It is said he could lead forth an army of 700,000 warriors.

In 447, he devastated the Eastern empire to the very gates of Constantinople;

and was bought off with 6000 lbs. of solid gold. In 451 he desolated France and took Orleans; but was defeated at Chalons by Theodoric. In 453, this destroyer ravaged northern Italy, pillaging its cities; but was beaten back from France by the Goths and

Alans. He died the same year. His body was enclosed in three coffins, one of gold, one of silver, and one of iron; and the captives who dug the grave were strangled, that its place might not be known to his enemies.



JOHN MARSHALL.

THE man, whose portrait we here give, was one of those persons whose memory is to be revered for his wisdom and his goodness. He was born in Fauquier county, Virginia, Sept. 24, 1755. His father was a very sensible man, and he gave John a good education, but he did not send him to college.

When John came to manhood, the revolutionary war had begun, and, like a good patriot, he went forth to help drive out King George's red-coats. When the war was over, he became a lawyer, and, though devoted to a very slippery profession, he showed that a lawyer may be an honest man.

When the question came up, in the Virginia House of Delegates, whether the present constitution should be adopted by the people or not, Marshall put forth his eloquence in its behalf, and thus greatly aided in giving his country that good government under which it has since flourished.

Such was now his reputation, that Washington tried to persuade him to accept several important offices; but, for private reasons, he declined. Afterwards, however, he went as minister to France, and, on his return, became a member of Congress, then secretary of war, then secretary of state, and, in 1801, chief justice of the United States.

It was in this latter situation that he acquired a lasting and enviable fame. He held the office till his death, in July, 1836; and, during this long period, his powerful mind, enlightened by his noble and truth-loving heart, was devoted to the cause of justice.

What a blessing is a great and good man to his country! for he not only benefits the generation with which he lives, by his acts, but he leaves his glorious example to all after ages; thus calling upon all those who have a noble ambition, to go and do likewise.



AQUEDUCTS.

AQUEDUCTS, or conduits for water, have been in use from the earliest times. They are spoken of in the remotest histories of Egypt, Assyria, and Persia, in connection with the exploits of Semiramis, Sesostris, and others. Solomon built them in Palestine, one thousand years before the Christian era, and King Hezekiah after him.

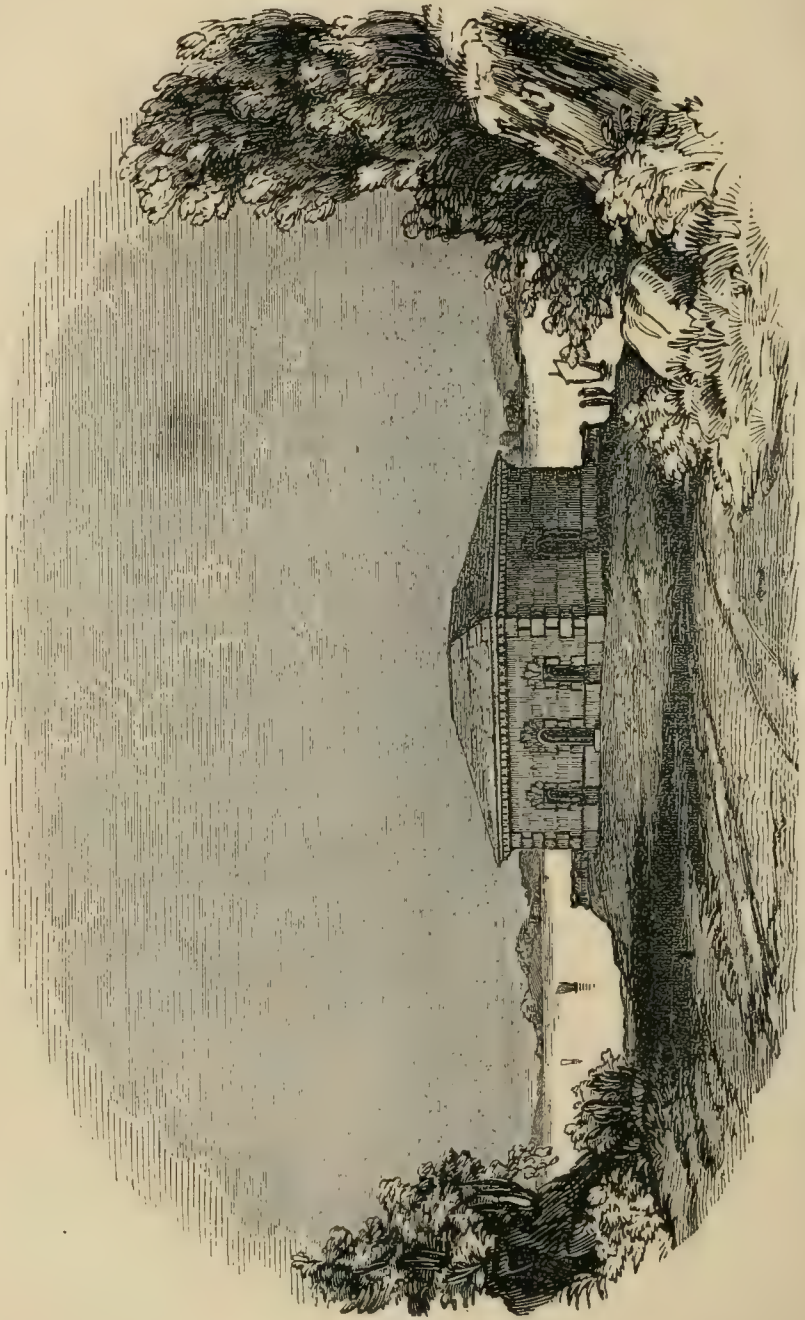
But the most famous aqueducts of antiquity, are those which were built by Roman perseverance, energy, and wealth. The oldest of these is that built by Appius Claudius, more than three hundred years B. C.; it had eleven miles of deep subterranean channel. Another of Quintus Marcius, commenced at a spring thirty-three miles from Rome, took a circuit of three miles, and then, forming a vault of sixteen feet in diameter, ran thirty-eight miles, along a series of arcades at an elevation of seventy feet. It had three distinct channels, one above the other, conveying water from different sources. Another is named having a tunnel four thousand feet in length. Another, the Aqua Claudia, begun by the Emperor Nero, and finished by Claudius, is thirty-eight miles long, and still brings water to modern Rome. Another led the Ario river into Rome by two different channels, one forty-three and the other sixty-three miles long, and running six and a half miles over a continuous succession of arches, many of them over one hundred feet high. At one time Rome numbered twenty-four aqueducts, which, perhaps, discharged fifty millions cubic feet of water daily, or, as is reckoned, fifty cubic feet per day for every inhabitant of the city.

In other parts of the Roman empire, the sovereigns, or wealthy and public-spirited citizens, built aqueducts whose fame has come down to us, and whose ruins attest the

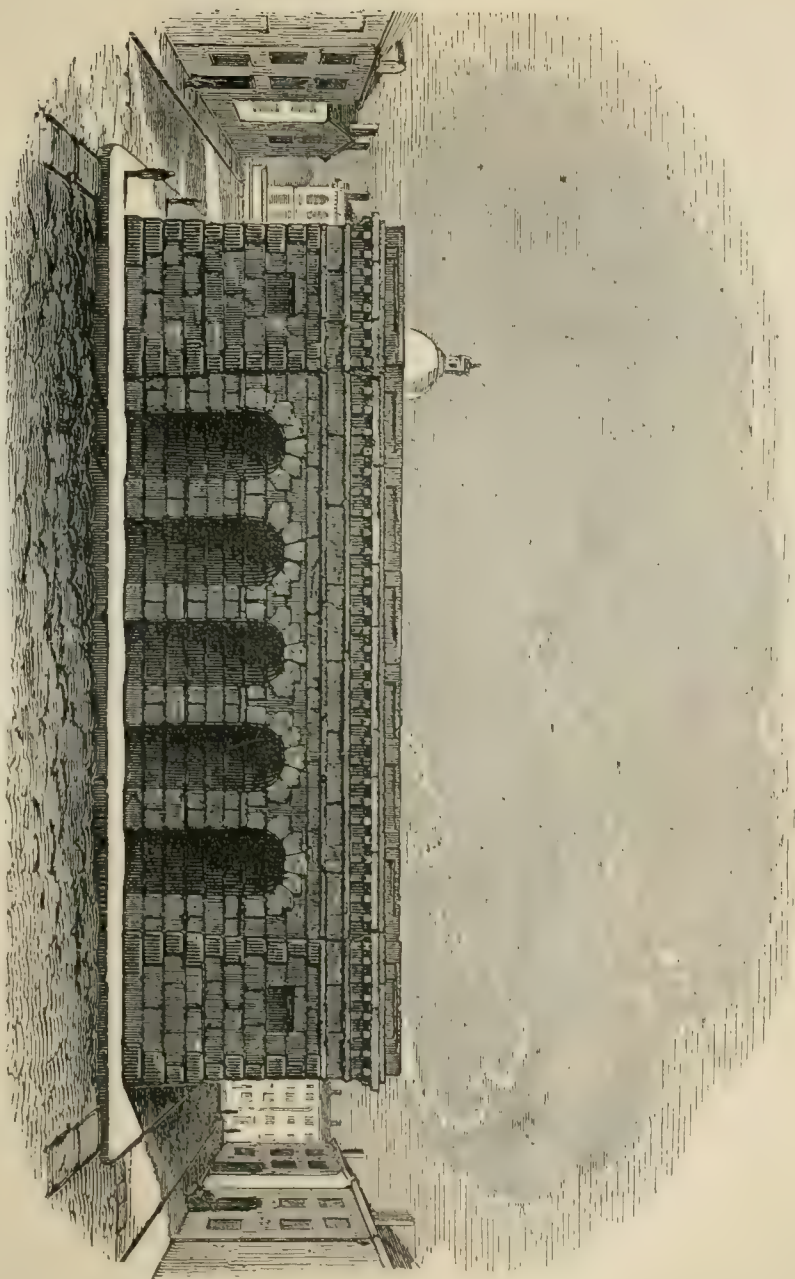
grandeur of the Roman genius. One of these is at Metz, in Germany, conducted by subterraneous tunnels of masonry, through which a man might walk upright; and over fifty arches, fifty feet high. Another is seen at Tyre, in Syria; it ran from a spring, three or four miles south of the city, and its sturdy arches still stretch themselves across the desolate plain in defiance of time and violence. The most striking, however, of the remains of Roman aqueducts, is seen at Segovia, in Spain. It is constructed of huge wrought stones, without cement; it has from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and sixty arches, in two rows; and is one hundred feet high, passing over the tops of most of the houses of the city.

Louis XIV. expended enormous sums to bring the waters of the Eure to Versailles; the aqueduct has two hundred and forty arcades, with seven hundred and twenty-six arches, of fifty feet span; and a bridge two hundred and twenty feet high. Passing by the water-works of London and Paris, we have, on this side the Atlantic, aqueducts challenging comparison with any, of ancient or modern times.

The Cochituate aqueduct, which brings water from Long Pond (659 acres) to Boston, is nearly twenty miles long. For nearly fifteen miles the water passes through a brick conduit, large enough for a man to walk upright in. Here it enters the Brookline receiving reservoir, whence it is carried in two iron pipes thirty and thirty-six inches in diameter, to the Beacon Hill distributing reservoir, in Boston. These reservoirs, with another on Dorchester heights; the gate houses in Brookline and at the pond; the bridge over Charles river, seventy-one feet above the water; the Pipe Chamber, near; the Road Bridge; the Waste Wier, — are the great



Long Pond.



Reservoir on Beacon Hill, Boston.

features of the aqueduct. It supplies the fountain on Boston Common,—which flings a jet of ninety-two feet in the air,—and others to be placed in the yard of the State House on Beacon street. The aqueduct can supply more than eleven millions of gallons per day; thus far it has cost over three millions of dollars.

The Croton aqueduct cost over twelve millions. It dams the Croton river, by a stupendous structure, making a lake of five hundred acres, forty miles from the city of New York. The main trunk consists of an immense mass of masonry six and a half feet wide, nine feet high, and forty miles long, formed of walls three feet thick, cemented into solid rock, and having air-holes at every mile, turret-shaped, and of white marble. The chief features are—eleven tunnels, some through solid rock; an arch at Sing Sing creek, eighty-eight feet span and one hundred feet high; Haarlem river

bridge, one fourth of a mile long, one hundred and sixteen feet high, along which the iron pipes run, three feet in diameter and buried four feet under soil; the pipes in the valley at Manhattanville, descending one hundred and five feet; viaduct across Clendenning valley, forty feet high; the granite receiving reservoir, thirty-eight miles from the dam, covering thirty-five acres, and containing one hundred and sixty million gallons; the granite distributing reservoir, on Forty-Second street, covering five acres, forty feet deep, surrounded by its triple granite wall sixty feet thick, and having upon it a broad flagged and railed walk! This reservoir will hold twenty-two million gallons, and is of Egyptian architecture. Various fountains are supplied by the waters, the largest of which is in the Park, throwing up its enormous cataract to the height of more than sixty feet. It can discharge twenty-two millions of gallons of water per day.



A SWISS GIRL.

THERE is no disputing about tastes. This picture represents a Swiss girl, of the canton of Berne, in her best dress. The article upon her head, which appears like the expanded wings of a butterfly, is a kind of network, made of hair or silk. The hair is braided behind in a double cue, a yard long.

The leg-of-mutton sleeves are white; the bodice is black, embroidered on the breasts.

How infinite are the varieties of taste in dress! Yet this Swiss fashion has been long established, and passes from one generation to another. There are many other curious costumes in Switzerland.



Noah's Ark.

THE DELUGE.

THIS great event took place sixteen hundred and fifty-six years after the creation, and was designed to show the displeasure of the Almighty at the universal wickedness and depravity of mankind. The account of it is given in the seventh and eighth chapters of Genesis. Many of the ancient nations have had traditions of this memorable phenomenon, from the earliest ages. In various parts of the world, far away from the sea, and on the tops of high mountains, are found bones, shells, water-washed stones, and other evidences that the ocean has, at some period or other, spread over all the land of the earth.

Learned men have attempted to account for the deluge. Some suppose that the earth was like a great globular hogshead, filled with water. The outside, or crust, being thin, got broke, and so the water rushed out and swashed over the world! This was the opinion of the learned Dr. Burnet. Some have supposed the deluge to have been caused by internal fires instead of internal waters; others think that a comet

ran foul of the earth, and imparted to it an extraordinary quantity of the liquid element.

For ourselves, we rest satisfied with the Scripture account, confirmed as it is by tradition and the actual geological appearance of certain parts of the earth. We know that great changes in the distribution of land and water upon the earth's surface have taken place, and we know, also, that when the Creator, who made the earth, desires to change its condition, he has in his hands the means of accomplishing his object.

Previous to the deluge, God had communicated his design to Noah, who, by divine command, built an ark or ship, into which he gathered his family, and pairs of all animals, with the requisite food for them. After all was ready, the floods came, and the rain fell forty days. The face of the whole earth was covered, and all animal creation was cut off.

"When the waters had lain on the earth a hundred and fifty days, the Lord remembered Noah, and every living thing, and all

the cattle that was with him in the ark ; and God made a wind to pass over the earth, and the waters were assuaged ; the fountains also of the deep, and the windows of heaven were stopped, and the rain from heaven was restrained ; and the waters returned from off the earth continually ; and, after the end of the hundred and fifty days, the waters were abated. And the ark rested in the seventh month, on the seventeenth day of the month, upon the mountains of Ararat. And the waters decreased continually, until the tenth month ; in the tenth month, on the first day of the month, were the tops of the mountains seen.

“ And it came to pass at the end of forty days, that Noah opened the window of the ark, which he had made ; and he sent forth a raven, which went forth to and fro, until the waters were dried up from off the earth. Also, he sent forth a dove from him, to see if the waters were abated from off the face of the ground ; but the dove found no rest for the sole of her foot, and she returned unto him into the ark ; for the waters were on the face of the whole earth. Then he put forth his hand, and took her, and pulled her in unto him into the ark. And he stayed yet other seven days, and again he sent forth the dove out of the ark. And the dove came in to him in the evening, and lo, in her mouth was an olive-leaf plucked

off. So Noah knew that the waters were abated from off the earth. And he stayed yet other seven days, and sent forth the dove ; which returned not again unto him any more.

“ And it came to pass in the six hundredth and first year, in the first month, the first day of the month, the waters were dried up from off the earth ; and Noah removed the covering of the ark, and looked, and behold, the face of the ground was dry. And in the second month, on the seven and twentieth day of the month, was the earth dried. And God spake unto Noah, saying, Go forth of the ark, thou, and thy wife, and thy sons, and thy sons' wives with thee. Bring forth with thee every living thing that is with thee, of all flesh, both of fowl and of cattle, and of every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth ; that they may breed abundantly in the earth, and be fruitful, and multiply upon the earth.”

Noah's ark is estimated to have been of forty-two thousand four hundred tons' burthen. It seems that it was at least half a century in being built. The material was *gopher-wood*, which was probably cedar. It was covered inside and out, with pitch. It was in form like an old-fashioned trunk, with a rounded roof. It was probably built near the mountain of Ararat, where it finally rested.



Mount Ararat.

In Armenia, near the mountain of Ararat, there are many popular traditions of the deluge and the ark, and we find traces of

this narrative in the ancient writings of Egypt, Greece, Syria, &c.



THE BLUE JAY.

THIS elegant bird is peculiar to North America, and is distinguished as a kind of beau among the feathered tenants of our woods by the brilliancy of his dress; and, like most other coxcombs, he makes himself still more conspicuous by his loquacity and the oddness of his tones and gestures. He is almost a universal inhabitant of the woods, frequenting the thickest settlements as well as the deepest recesses of the forest, where his squalling voice often alarms the deer, to the disappointment of the hunter.

In the charming season of spring, when every thicket pours forth harmony, the part performed by the jay always catches the ear. He appears to be, among his fellow-musicians, what the trumpeter is in a band, some of his notes bearing no distant resemblance to the tones of that instrument. These he has the faculty of changing through a great variety of modulations. When disposed for ridicule, there is scarcely a bird whose peculiarities of song he cannot tune his notes to. When engaged in the blandishments of love, they resemble the soft chattering of a duck, and are scarce heard at some paces distant; but no sooner does he discover your approach, than he sets up a sudden and vehement outcry, flying off and screaming with all his might. His notes, a stranger might readily mistake for the repeated creakings of an ungreased wheelbarrow! All these he accompanies with various nods, jerks, and other gesticulations, for which the whole tribe of jays are so remarkable.

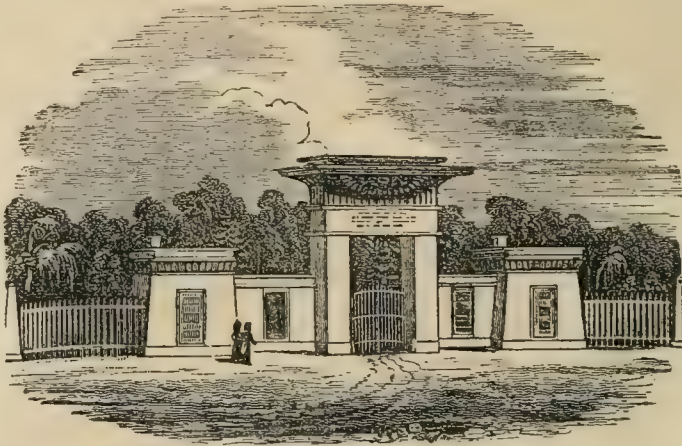
The blue jay builds a large nest, on a cedar or apple-tree. His favorite food is chestnuts, acorns, and Indian corn. He sometimes feeds on bugs and caterpillars, and often plunders orchards, cherry-rows and potato-patches. He spreads alarm and sorrow around him, by robbing the nests of other birds, sucking the eggs, and frequently devouring the young. In times of great extremity, he will devour any animal substance that comes in his way.

Of all birds, he is the most bitter enemy to the owl. No sooner has he discovered the retreat of one of these, than he summons the whole feathered fraternity to his assistance, who surround the glimmering *solitaire*, and attack him from all sides, raising such a shout as may be heard half a mile off; the owl meanwhile returning every compliment with a broad goggling stare. The war becomes louder and louder, and the owl, at length forced to betake himself to flight, is followed by the whole train of his impudent persecutors, until driven beyond their jurisdiction.

The jay is not only bold and vociferous, but possesses considerable talent for mimicry, and seems to enjoy great satisfaction in mocking and teasing other birds, particularly the sparrow-hawk, imitating his cry whenever he sees him, and squealing out as if caught. This soon brings a number of his tribe around him, who all join in the frolic, darting about the hawk, and feigning the cries of a bird sorely wounded; but this ludicrous farce often ends tragically. The hawk, singling out one of the most insolent and provoking, sweeps upon him in an unguarded moment, and offers him up a sacrifice to his hunger and resentment. In an instant the tune is changed; all their buffoonery vanishes, and loud and incessant screams proclaim their disaster.

A blue jay, which was brought up in the family of a gentleman in South Carolina, had all the tricks and loquacity of a parrot; pilfered everything he could conveniently carry off, and hid it in holes and crevices; answered to his name with great sociability when called on, could articulate a number of words pretty distinctly; and when he heard any uncommon noise or loud talking, seemed impatient to contribute to the general festivity, by a display of all the oratorical powers he was possessed of.

This bird is eleven inches in length. His head is ornamented with a crest of light blue or purple feathers; whole upper parts light blue or purple. The tail is long, and light blue, tipped with black.



MOUNT AUBURN.

WE propose to devote a few pages to this hamlet of the dead. It was a sweet spot as it came from the hands of nature; but it has been improved by art, and fitted for its solemn purposes. It is now the home of our kindred. There sleep the high and the humble — those who lived many years, and went down with gray hairs to the tomb, and those of a few days, who were cut off like early flowers by the frosts of spring. There lie Spurzheim and Story, among the men of fame — and there sleep McLellan and Buckingham, among the youthful and the beloved. And all around these, and many other sleepers, there are trees in full leaf, and flowers in full bloom; and birds are singing there, and the sunshine is dancing upon the face of rippling waters. 'Tis a lovely spot — beautiful and holy — beautiful to the eye, and holy to the heart.

The grounds are shaped into hills and valleys, and pathways are cut between; and as you pass along, sheets of water, and white monuments, of chaste and classic forms, shine upon the eye, through the shadowy vistas that open on every side. How cold and senseless are these marbles! yet not colder than the human forms that repose beneath them. How solemn is the city of the dead! and yet here death itself is robbed of its gloom. The place is mournful, yet suggestive of hopeful and cheerful thoughts. We know that the dead, the departed, are here; but there is a sermon in the scene, which teaches us that this is not their final resting-place. The interest we feel in these forms convinces us that they are not really dead, but sleeping. When we go away, the mind returns often

to the place, and becomes familiar with death. We are thus made to think of our own departure, and the remembrance of the tomb mingles in the affairs of busy life. The idea of death is now not shut out as a horrible and revolting vision; it is admitted and made the subject of frequent contemplation and reflection. It may well be hoped, that, under such circumstances, the reality of death may be established in the mind and a preparation for it be the natural result.

The cemetery of Mount Auburn is situated in Cambridge, about four miles northwest of Boston. The grounds comprise about 70 acres, and are now encircled with a handsome iron railing. The place had been long known by the name of "Sweet Auburn" — a fact which shows how its beauty, even in a state of nature, had struck the mind of observers.

The idea of purchasing this place for a cemetery was started about the year 1825; and that year a meeting upon the subject was held by several gentlemen, at the house of Dr. Bigelow, in Boston. This was followed by efficient measures in 1831; the site was purchased for six thousand dollars, and an act of incorporation obtained from the state. In September, 1831, the place was consecrated, there being more than two thousand persons present. On this occasion, Judge Story delivered an address, full of interesting and beautiful thoughts. From this we make the following extract: —

"What a multitude of thoughts crowd upon the mind in the contemplation of such a scene! How much of the future, even in its far distant reaches, rises before us with all its persuasive realities! Take but one

little narrow space of time, and how affecting are its associations! Within the flight of one half century, how many of the great, the good, and the wise will be gathered here! How many, in the loveliness of infancy, the beauty of youth, the vigor of

manhood, and the maturity of age, will lie down here, and dwell in the bosom of their mother earth! — the rich and the poor, the gay and the wretched, the favorites of thousands and the forsaken of the world, the stranger in his solitary grave, and the patri-



Consecration Dell.

arch surrounded by the kindred of long lineage. How many will here bury their brightest hopes, or blasted expectations! How many bitter tears will here be shed! How many agonizing sighs will here be heaved! How many trembling feet will

cross the pathways, and, returning, leave behind them the dearest objects of their reverence or their love! And if this were all, sad, indeed, and funereal, would be our thoughts; gloomy, indeed, would be these shades, and desolate these prospects."



Forest Pond.

It is not necessary that we should give a minute account of this interesting cemetery, for our readers have all seen it, or heard a great deal about it; but, for the benefit of those who have never had the pleasure

of visiting it, we shall give a few brief sketches of the most interesting objects to be seen.

Garden Pond is a lovely sheet of water, not far from the entrance to the grounds.

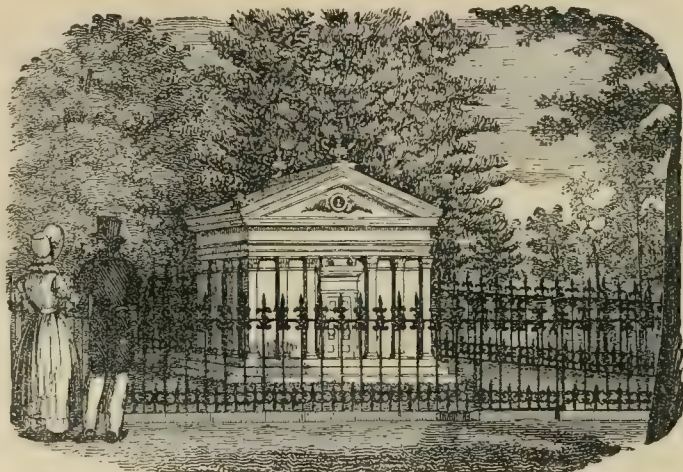
A neat walk passes around it, and bright flowers, that bloom along the margin, are reflected in the tranquil waters. There are also other charming pieces of water, among which Forest Pond is conspicuous.

A little beyond this is the tomb of the celebrated German phrenologist Spurzheim, who died in Boston, in November, 1832, aged 56 years.

No sacred voice of Father-land,
Like home familiar, soothed his bed ;
No ancient friend's blest, welcome hand
Raised his sick head.

From the far home that gave him birth,
A pilgrim o'er the ocean wave,
He came to find, in other earth,
A stranger's grave.

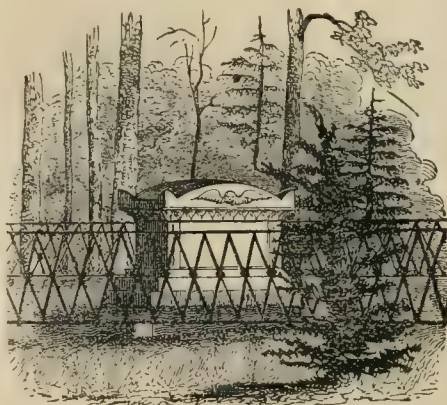
As a specimen of the finer monuments in the cemetery, we present a view of that be-



Appleton Monument.

longing to S. Appleton. It is of white Italian marble, in the form of a temple, of correct proportions, and beautifully chiselled. It is copied, we believe, from the model of a celebrated Roman tomb of high antiquity.

The Curtis monument is on the left of the central avenue, as we proceed from the gateway, and is interesting as the place



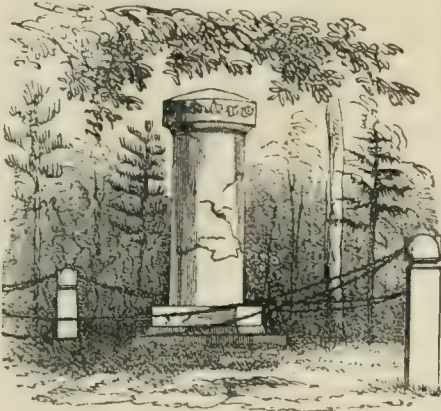
Curtis Monument.

where the remains of James Freeman Curtis are deposited. This individual, who had as many personal friends as any other, and who

was suddenly cut off in the midst of his days, was a native of Boston, and became, in early life, a midshipman in our navy. He was captured in the Chesapeake, when she was taken by the Shannon, 1813. He was carried to Halifax, and was one of the officers selected by the British as hostages for the lives of certain Englishmen imprisoned by our government. Afterwards, he served as midshipman in the Constitution, when, under Commodore Stewart, she captured in the same action the frigate Cyane and the Levant. He was sent home by the commodore second in command of the Cyane, and arrived with the prize at New York. In 1815, after peace with England, he joined the fleet sent, under Decatur, to chastise the Algerines, then in power in the Mediterranean. His next service of importance was as first lieutenant of the brig Porpoise, which was ordered to the West Indies to protect our commerce from pirates. Mr. Curtis personally destroyed, by leading his men in boats up a deep lagoon, at the imminent risk of his life, one of the most considerable establishments of these miscreants. After these duties were performed, he obtained a furlough, and made several voyages to India and Europe, in the merchant service ; during which period, as captain of a

brig, it fell to his lot to rescue the lives of eight fellow-beings, left in the midst of the Atlantic, their ship having foundered.

Such was the activity of the youth of Curtis. Nor was it less signal in after years; though, having resigned his commission in the navy, in 1824,—at the time of his marriage,—it displayed itself in another sphere of usefulness and duty. His fellow-citizens were familiar with him, particularly as superintendent of the Boston and Worcester railroad, in which office he remained till his decease. In 1835, while passing under an arch in one of the cars, his head was dashed against a pier, and life was immediately extinct. It is a strong and emphatic testimonial, as to the public estimate of his charac-



Lothrop.

ter, that a suitable provision for his family was immediately made by subscription.

Proceeding up the central avenue, and passing a monument which bears the name of "Stillman Lothrop," we come to a hand-



Hannah Adams.

some white marble column on the left, inscribed thus: "To HANNAH ADAMS, Histo-

rian of the Jews, and Reviewer of the Christian Sects, this is erected by her Female Friends. First tenant of Mount Auburn, she died Dec. 15, 1831, aged 76."



Stone.

Stephens.

On the same avenue is Dr. J. Bigelow's,—a round, unfinished column of marble, with a festoon of olive leaves hung about it, near the top; and, further onward, two granite obelisks, with the names of "Stone" and "Stephens."

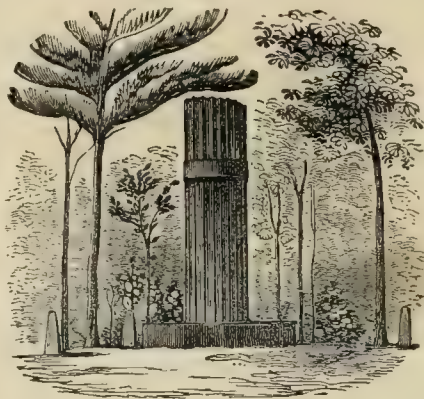


M. Dunbar.

This brings us to Cedar Avenue, where we find the name of "Melzar Dunbar" on one stone, and that of "Lienow" on another—the latter an unfinished column.

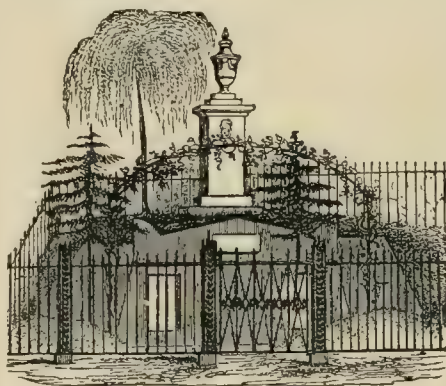
On Poplar Avenue, the stranger's eye will be arrested by the monument of "McLellan." Among the names on the tablets, each side of the door of the tomb beneath, appears that of "Henry Blake McLellan," who died in 1833, at the age of 22; to which the inscription adds, that he was "gradu-

ated at Harvard University in 1829; commenced the study of divinity at Andover; spent two years at the University of Edinburgh, and on the continent of Europe, in



Lienow.

the completion of his studies." He returned home, but a fever closed his life in three months afterwards. A writer on Mount Auburn says: —



McLellan.

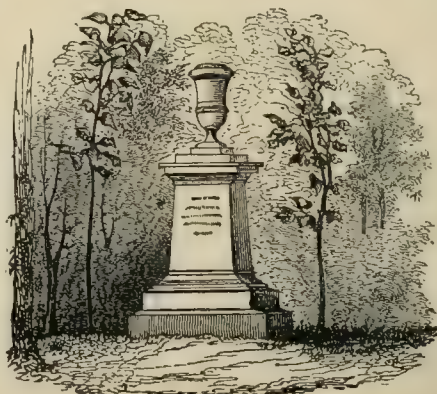
"There is one at rest in his tomb in this enclosure, who was known to a large circle of friends, and whose bright prospects were early shut in by death. Having enjoyed every advantage for the improvement of his mind, and of preparation for future usefulness, by visiting foreign lands, he returned to the bosom of his family to die.

"Should we now express for him the feelings of anxiety upon the subject of religion with which he left college, his convictions that he had not found a satisfactory and permanent resting-place for his hopes for eternity, and his subsequent acquaintance with evangelical truth, and the divine Saviour, who is its distinguished glory and chief corner-stone, we should write upon his tomb, —

'I was a stricken deer, that left the herd
Long since. With many an arrow, deep infix'd,
My panting side was charged, when I withdrew
To seek a tranquil death in distant shades.
There was I found by one, who had himself
Been hurt by the archers. In his side he bore,
And in his hands and feet, the cruel scars.
With gentle force, soliciting the darts,
He drew them forth, and healed, and bade me live.'

"The author of the memoir of McLellan, attached to the Journal of his Travels in Europe, which was published soon after his decease, states that, not long previous to leaving this country, he wrote, in one of his letters, the following passage in relation to the cemetery at Mount Auburn. It is justly remarked, that the coincidence of that passage with the event of his death was certainly striking, and that the sentences possess a peculiar interest, when we remember that he himself was the first member of the family laid to rest in that rural cemetery, and that there he is now, according to his own wish, 'sleeping his long, cold sleep.'

"'You speak of the rural cemetery at sweet Auburn. I am pleased with the project. It will undoubtedly succeed. I am happy to learn that father contemplates taking a spot there. With those pleasant places my college days are tenderly connected, and I would love there to sleep my long, cold sleep. To such a place there is a permanence which is wanting to the common churchyard; the bodies there deposited rest quietly forever. Besides, to such a spot we are led by our best sympathies, — to shed tears or scatter flowers. I am glad, too, that my dear father is about to make arrangements for our common burial-place, that, as we have been united in life, we may not be separated in death.'"



Choate.

The monument of Choate will be found on Poplar Avenue; that of Prichard on Oak

Avenue. The monument of McLeod is on Willow Avenue. It bears two inscriptions, in one of which are these touching lines —

— "She died, and left to me
This spot — this calm and quiet scene ;
The memory of what has been,
And never more shall be."



McLeod.

Williams.

On Willow Avenue is also the monument of Martha Ann Fisher, who was the idol of many friends, and an object of admiration to every eye that beheld her. The inscription has this sentence : "She is not here — she is risen."



Martha Ann Fisher.

In the same direction are the monuments of Wyman and Howe, Thayer, Mason, and Buckingham. The latter is an object of deep interest to all who knew in life the death-sleeper in the vault below.

The following lines, occasioned by the decease of Buckingham, and the authorship of which is ascribed to Mr. Sprague, appeared, not long after that event, in the New



Wyman and Howe.

England Magazine, of which highly respectable publication he was a proprietor, as well as editor, in connection with his father, for several years : —



Edwin Buckingham.

" Spare him one little week, Almighty Power !
Yield to his father's house his dying hour ;
Once more, once more let them, who held him dear,
But see his face, his faltering voice but hear.
We know, alas ! that he is marked for death ;
But let his mother watch his parting breath :
Oh ! let him die at home !

" It could not be :
At midnight, on a dark and stormy sea,
Far from his kindred and his native land,
His pangs unsoothed by tender woman's hand,
The patient victim in his cabin lay,
And meekly breathed his blameless life away.

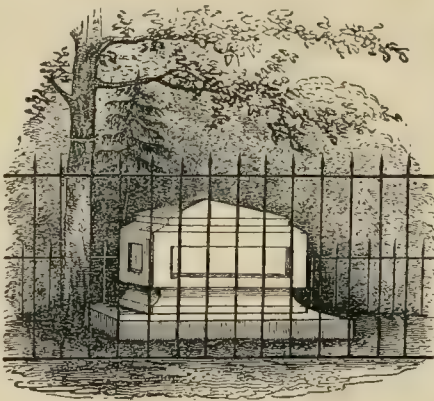
* * * * *
" Wrapped in the raiment that it long must wear,
His body to the deck they slowly bear ;
How eloquent, how awful in its power,
The silent lecture of Death's Sabbath hour !
One voice that silence breaks — the prayer is said,
And the last rite man pays to man is paid :
The plashing waters mark his resting place,
And fold him round in one long, cold embrace ;
Bright bubbles for a moment sparkle o'er,
Then break, to be, like him, beheld no more ;
Down, countless fathoms down, he sinks to sleep,
With all the nameless shapes that haunt the deep." "

It would not, perhaps, interest the reader, if we were to extend to any great length our notice of the various monuments which mark the places of repose, the chosen abodes, in this home of the dead. We shall add a few more sketches, and commend it to the reader rather to visit this sad but fascinating spot than to be content with our representation.



Warren Colburn.

On Locust Avenue will be found the tomb of Warren Colburn, the arithmetician—who died in 1833, at the age of 40. His private character was most exemplary. A writer, about the time of his decease, remarked of him justly, that "his study through life seemed to be to do good."



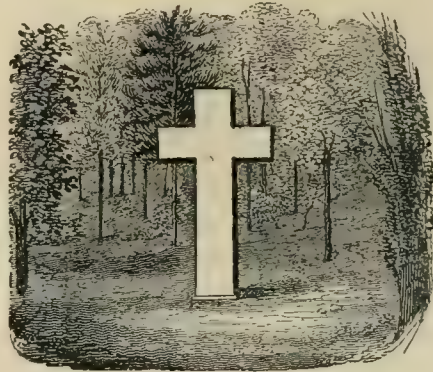
Cheever.

On Locust Avenue a handsome sarcophagus shows the familiar and ancient name of "Cheever." The inscription reads thus:—

"Bartholomew Cheever was born in Canterbury, county of Kent, England, in 1607;

came to America 1637; died in 1693, aged 86."

Not far from the tomb of the Cheevers, on Mountain Avenue, the visitor will hardly fail to notice the beautiful plain cross, of white marble, which bears the name of "Swett."



Swett.

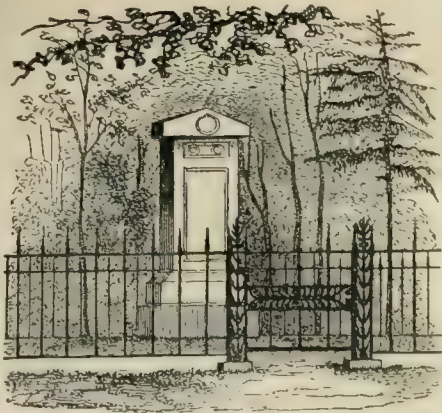
The visitor will find, near to Consecration Dell, of which we have given a cut, the sweet avenue called Violet Path; and here the monument of Hicks will be noticed.



Hicks.

On Beach Avenue is the monument erected to S. F. Coolidge, with this inscription: "The gift of God is eternal life."

We have noticed but a few of the monuments in this cemetery, which is now studded with numerous tombs, of various devices, and indicating the havoc that the scythe of time is making, not only among those who are ripe in years, but among the very flush and bloom of society.



S. F. Coolidge.

We close our imperfect sketches with the following lines, founded upon the fond remembrance which redeems the lost — for a time at least — from the grave, and seems to make them live, while yet dead.

“I see thee still!

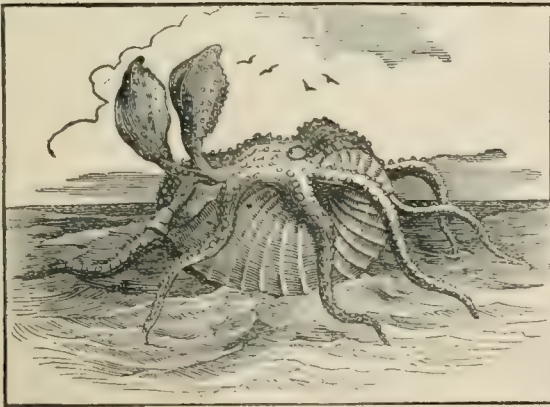
Remembrance, faithful to her trust,
Calls thee in beauty from the dust;
Thou comest in the morning light —
Thou’rt with me through the gloomy night;

In dreams I meet thee as of old;
Then thy soft arms my neck infold,
And thy sweet voice is in my ear;
In every scene to memory dear
I see thee still!

“I see thee still
In every hallowed token round!
This little ring thy finger bound,
This lock of hair thy forehead shaded,
This silken chain by thee was braided;
These flowers, all withered now like thee,
Sweet sister, thou didst cull for me;
This book was thine — here didst thou read —
This picture, ah! yes, here indeed
I see thee still!

“I see thee still!
Here was thy summer noon’s retreat;
This was thy favorite fireside seat;
This was thy chamber, where, each day,
I sat and watched thy sad decay;
Here on this bed thou hast didst lie,
Here on this pillow thou didst die!
Dark hour! once more its woes unfold —
As then I saw thee, pale and cold,
I see thee still!

“I see thee still!
Thou art not in the tomb confined;
Death cannot claim the immortal mind.
Let earth close o’er its sacred trust,
Yet goodness dies not in the dust.
Thee, O my sister! ’tis not thee
Beneath the coffin’s lid I see;
Thou to a fairer land art gone —
There, let me hope, my journey done,
To see thee still!”



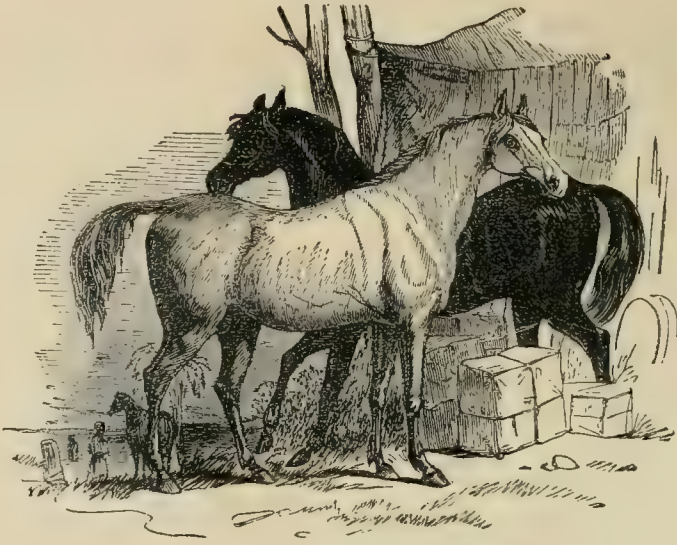
THE NAUTILUS.

THERE are few objects in nature which have more frequently excited the admiration of the wise, as well as the simple, than this. Its shell is often met with in collections of the conchologist; but to understand the real nature of the animal, it should be seen in its own element. Its home is on the sea, and it launches forth upon the briny element as fearlessly as a man-of-war!

It is said to spread a sail, on particular occasions, and thus to move before the wind

like a ship; and it has even been supposed to have first suggested the idea of propelling vessels by means of sails.

There is one curious question in respect to the nautilus which remains unsettled among naturalists, — and that is, whether the creature grows to his shell, as an oyster or a clam to his, or whether he only carries it on his back, as a snail does his — taking it off and putting it on at his pleasure. We incline to the former.



THE HORSE.

THE horse is not known in its primitive state. Those which are found wild, are not ferocious, but they are high-spirited. Though superior in strength to the greater part of animals, they never attack them, and if they are attacked by others, either disdain them, or trample them under their feet. They go also in bodies, and unite themselves into troops, merely for the pleasure of being together; for they are not fearful of, but have an attachment to, each other. As herbs and vegetables are sufficient for their nourishment, they have quite enough to satisfy their appetite; and as they have no relish for the flesh of animals, they never make war with them, nor with each other. They never quarrel about their food; they have no occasion to ravish the prey of another, the ordinary source of contentions and quarrels.

The astonishment and fear which the inhabitants of Mexico and Peru expressed at the sight of horses and their riders, convinced the Spaniards that this animal was entirely unknown in those countries. They therefore carried thither a great number, as well for service and their particular utility, as to propagate the breed. These have spread over parts of Mexico and South America. Herds of wild horses, the offspring of those which have escaped from the Spanish possessions in Mexico, are not uncommon in the extensive prairies that lie to the west of the Mississippi. These are often caught, and reduced to service by the Indians and hunters.

THE JAVANESE TIGER-BEETLE.

THE family of beetles is exceedingly numerous, and infinitely diversified in size, form, and color. Some live in the water, and some in the earth, and most of them keep out of sight; they are a sturdy, busy, bustling race, and possess voracious appetites. Nearly all of them can fly, though this is only done for business and not for pleasure. Some beetles are black, some brown, and

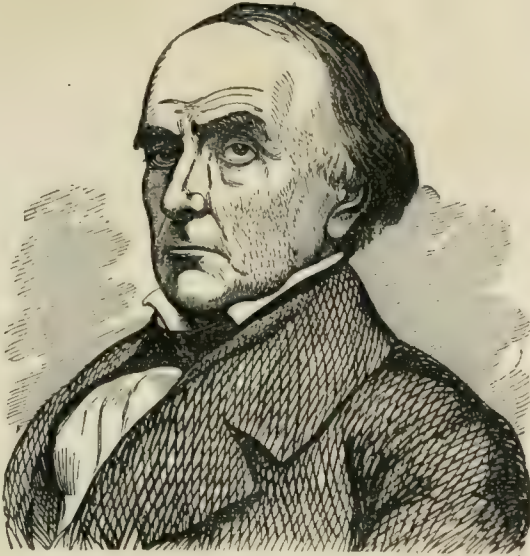


some of the most brilliant green and purple, often changing their hues like the feathers of a peacock. Like other insects, they

breathe by spiracles, and in the water-beetles these are placed in the abdomen, so that you may often see these creatures, when they wish to breathe, putting the head down and the tail up!

The Javanese beetle, of which we give a portrait, is remarkable for its flatness. It looks, in fact, like a piece of thin rolled

gingerbread, or an Italian jumble — rather than like a living thing. Yet, singular as it appears, the species does not seem to differ in genus and habits from the rest of the family, but is satisfied to live in obscurity, under a stone, in a cellar, amid the dead trees of the forest, or among ruins, provided it can get enough of fish, flesh or fowl to eat.

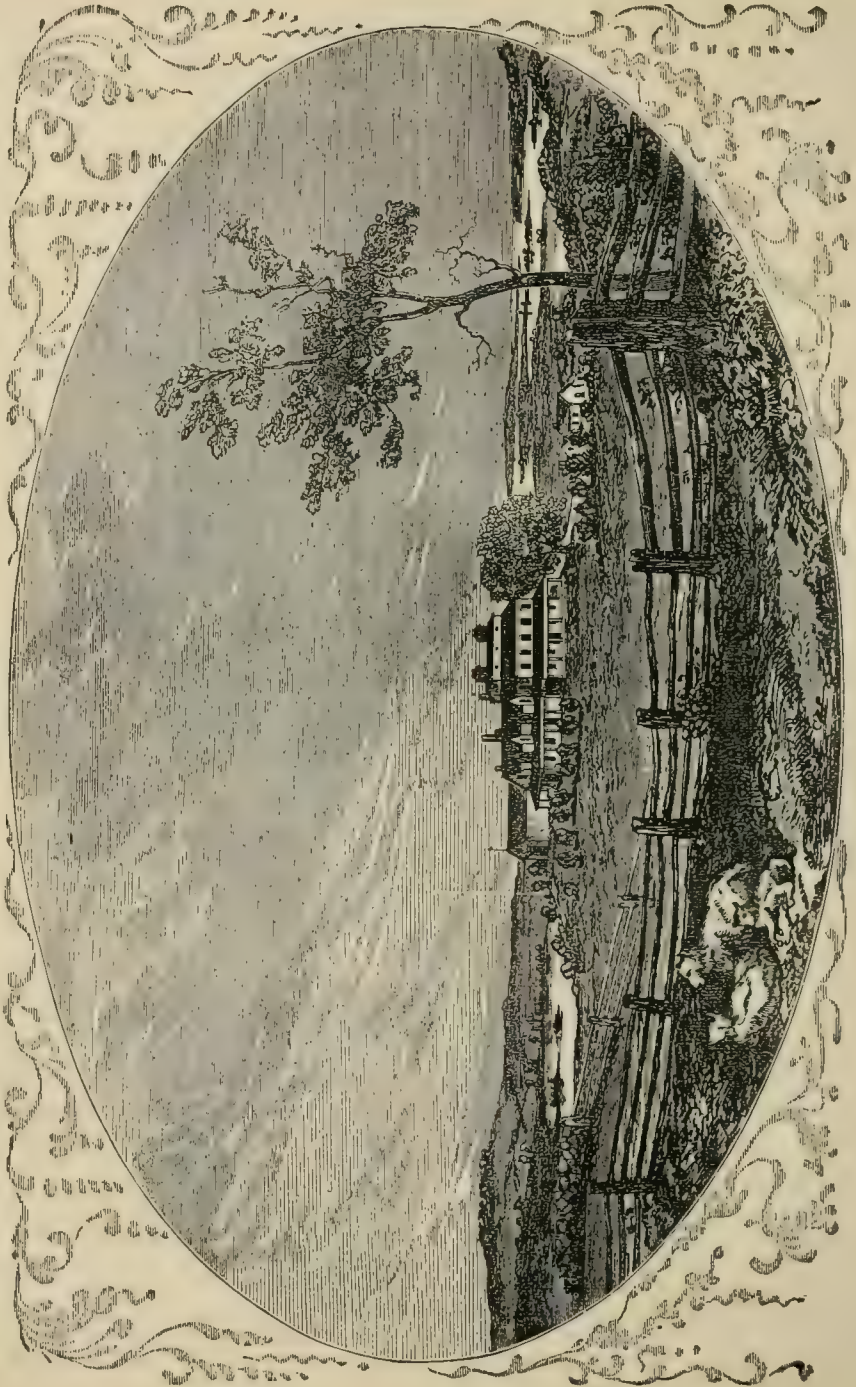


DANIEL WEBSTER.

DANIEL WEBSTER was born in Salisbury, in the State of New Hampshire, on the 18th of January, 1782. He came of a good stock, his father having usefully served his country, both as a soldier and a civilian. During the "old French war," Mr. Ebenezer Webster served as a member of that famous corps, "Rogers' Rangers;" and in the revolutionary contest, he took a prominent part in the important military events which led to the surrender of Burgoyne. In civil life, he was a member of both branches of the Legislature of New Hampshire; and in 1791 he was elevated to a seat on the bench of the Common Pleas. He was not a man likely to be backward in procuring for his children every means of intellectual cultivation afforded by the country half a century since; and Daniel, after receiving instruction from a clergyman in Boscawen, was sent to Exeter Academy, whence he went to Dartmouth College, where, in due season, he graduated. He had charge of an academy at Fryburgh, for about a year.

Entering the office of a lawyer, in his native town, he soon acquired all that could be taught therein, and then removed to Boston, where he commenced a high course of study in the office of Mr. Gore, afterwards governor of Massachusetts. Mr. Gore had an important practice, and it was not long before he discovered Mr. Webster's intellectual superiority; and the discovery was attended with good results to the pupil, as Mr. Gore's social position was high, and his friendship a matter of great moment to any young man about to enter upon a course of political and professional life. While in his office, Mr. Webster devoted himself to legal and historical studies of the first importance, and laid the foundation of those extensive acquirements which have been so useful to him throughout his great career.

After finishing his studies in Boston, Mr. Webster returned to New Hampshire, and opened an office at Boscawen. He soon rose to eminence, both as a lawyer and a politician. He took the federal side in poli-



Mr. Webster's country-seat at Marshfield.

tics, and was by that party chosen a member of the House of Representatives in the thirteenth Congress. He took a prominent part in the proceedings of that body, and his reputation at once became national. He made several speeches on important questions, which, as regard vigor and clearness of style, are in no respect inferior to his best efforts in the Senate of the Union. He also practised in the Supreme Court of the United States, — a school admirably adapted to sharpen the intellect and purify the taste of great men.

After serving four years in Congress, Mr. Webster left that body, to devote himself entirely to his profession. He removed from Portsmouth, N. H., which had been his place of residence for some years, to Boston, in which city he rapidly acquired an extensive and lucrative practice. In 1818, he appeared in the famous Dartmouth College case. Mr. Webster was one of the counsel for the College, and the United States Supreme Court sustained his position, and set aside the decision of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire. When the Massachusetts State Convention met in 1820, to revise the Constitution of the commonwealth, Mr. Webster was a member of it; and in that body he spoke several times on questions of great interest, and in a manner calculated to add to his fame.

In 1820, Mr. Webster was elected a member of the United States House of Representatives, by the people of the Suffolk district. He represented this district for six years, when he was transferred to the Senate, in which body he has since played so conspicuous a part. While a member of the House, he made several speeches on topics of interest to the whole civilized world. That on the Greek question, and another on the Panama mission, may be particularly cited.

In the Senate, Mr. Webster continued to serve until he was made Secretary of State, by President Harrison, in March, 1841. His place in that body was second to that of no man during the long period that he remained there; and among the senators of those days were Calhoun, Clay, Woodbury, Benton, Hayne, Randolph, Van Buren, and several others of the most distinguished of our countrymen, who have lived and flourished during the last forty years. On every question which afforded room for great and weighty discussion, Mr. Webster had more or less to say in the Senate. The bare enumeration of his leading speeches in that branch of the national legislature would

suffice to show how vast was his application, how various were his attainments, and how universal was his comprehension. His greatest efforts were made on constitutional questions, and these acquired for him that title of which his friends are so justly proud, namely, "The Expounder of the Constitution." He spoke on the tariff question in 1828; and his replies to Mr. Hayne, in Jan., 1830, completed his fame. Opinions may differ on the merits of the views upheld by the southern and the northern statesmen in that intellectual tourney; but there cannot be more than one opinion as to the ability with which Mr. Webster sustained his sentiments respecting the constitution, and vindicated New England against the absurd charges of men who were ignorant alike of her history and the spirit of her people.

In the winter of 1832, '33, he took the lead, though a principal member of the opposition party, in support of those measures which were proposed by government to prevent the full success of the nullification party in South Carolina. His course on that occasion was much approved throughout the country, by men of all parties, and is said to have brought the President (Gen. Jackson) and Mr. Webster into intimate relations with each other; and certainly no men were more likely to appreciate one another's great qualities, several of which were common to both. Throughout the great contest which resulted from the determination of government to suppress the United States Bank, Mr. Webster was the chief champion of the opposition party, in support of whose principles he made some of his most effective speeches, as well at public meetings as in the Senate.

At the presidential election of 1836, Mr. Webster received the vote of Massachusetts for the presidency. The election of that year was remarkable for presenting a sort of guerilla warfare on the part of the opposition, who, instead of uniting their efforts on some one of their eminent leaders, ran no less than four different candidates, — a policy so suicidal that there is nothing to be said in excuse of it by those who are of opinion that the government should be conducted on Whig principles. Being able, at this distance of time, to speak with some degree of certainty on the subject, it is not hazarding much to say, that had the Whig party concentrated its whole energies on some one competent man at that election, they would have triumphed almost as signally as they did four years later; and the future historian of the country will have to

express either his joy or his regret, according to the character of his political sentiments, that an opportunity was thrown away for elevating the first man of the nation to the first place in the nation.

In 1839, Mr. Webster visited England, where he was received in the most flattering manner, his reputation having become universal. Returning home, he took a prominent part in the great presidential contest of 1840, which eventuated in the defeat of the democratic party. He was called to the first place in the cabinet by President Harrison, with the full approbation of the triumphant party. After Gen. Harrison's death, Mr. Webster continued Secretary of State under President Tyler, and did not retire from that office when his colleagues resigned their places, after the bill enacting a National Bank had been refused the executive sanction. Mr. Webster had entered the cabinet, it is understood, with the intention of settling several questions connected with foreign affairs and our commercial policy; and he very properly did not think it necessary to lose sight of these in a contest relating solely to matters connected with our domestic financial policy. It would be unjust to Mr. Webster to omit to say, that his opinions on great questions underwent no change because of his remaining in the cabinet; and he left that body so soon as Mr. Tyler showed a determination to favor the democracy, and had commenced those movements which resulted in the annexation of Texas. He was Secretary of State more than two years, during which time the North-Eastern Boundary question was settled, and a source of irritation between the United States and Great Britain removed.

Mr. Webster remained about two years in private life, when he was again elected to the United States Senate, by the Legislature of Massachusetts, in place of Mr. Choate. Of his labors in that body during the last three years, it is not necessary to speak at length. He has spoken on several interesting occasions, and always commanded, from senators and from the country, that degree of attention which is due to the greatness of his intellect and the extent of his experience. His term of service in the U. S. Senate will expire in 1851.

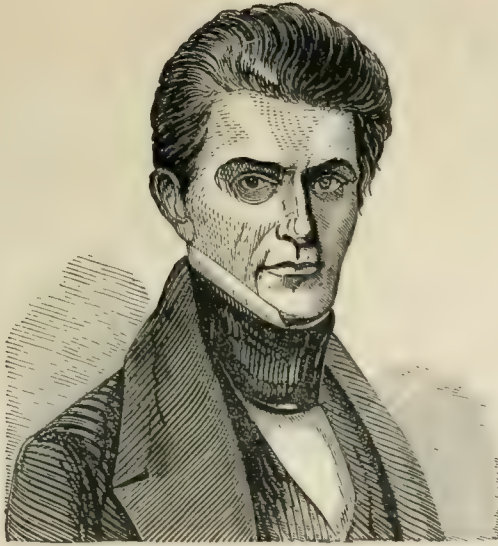
Great as have been Mr. Webster's speeches in Congress, it may be doubted if they are superior to many made by him elsewhere. He has been very nappy on occasions when he has addressed his fellow-citizens, and it is proper to add, that

the respect in which he has been held by his countrymen has prevented them from calling upon him save on occasions of the first consequence. As illustrative of our remark, we may be permitted to refer to his address at Plymouth, on the two hundredth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims, — to that of the 17th of June, 1825, at the laying of the corner-stone of Bunker Hill monument, when Lafayette was present, — to the eulogy on Adams and Jefferson, pronounced in Faneuil Hall, in 1826, — and to the address on the completion of Bunker Hill monument, June 17, 1843. All these addresses are of the highest order, and have taken permanent places in our literature.

As a lawyer, Mr. Webster has been very successful. The cases in which he has been engaged have always been of that class which, from the principles involved, or the magnitude of the interests at stake, have commanded attention, and compelled counsel to have recourse to law as a science. Most of his cases have been of a civil character. We have no knowledge of his having been concerned in more than three criminal cases of importance since his residence in Massachusetts.

The place of Mr. Webster will be great in American history. He has not, it is true, filled the highest office of the land; but it is not necessary to a man's fame that he should be successful in reaching to high official station. The greatest of historical personages, those men to whom "fame has lent her purest ray, the most renowned of worthy wights of yore," rarely reached to high places in life. It was reserved to them to achieve immortality in other than common ways. What places, beyond those which the most ordinary of English gentlemen have often filled, fell to the lot of John Hampden? Yet, there is not a man living who would not prefer to have been Hampden rather than either Strafford or Clarendon. Wm. Pitt was, for more than twenty years, prime minister of England, — Charles James Fox's official life did not extend to as many months; but will any one undertake to say that Fox will have a place in history inferior to that of Pitt? So will it be with many of our American statesmen. Some, who have been elevated to high places, will find their proper level in history, while those who have been voted "unavails" in life, will become the guiding-stars of the nation when removed beyond the reach of both the applause of friends and the malice of enemies.

Pictorial National Library.



JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN.

JOHN C. CALHOUN was born in the State of South Carolina, of Irish parents, on the 18th of March, 1782. His parents were revolutionary Whigs, and during the war of Independence took a prominent part in the fierce struggles which marked the war in the southern department. His father was distinguished for his prowess against the Indians, and was thirty years a member of the Legislature of South Carolina. In spite of the difficulties which at that period lay in the way of obtaining an education, young Calhoun had, at the age of eighteen, acquired a large stock of information. Though he had at first intended to become a planter, he changed his mind, at the instance of his brother James, and entered Yale College, where he graduated with full honors in 1804. After passing three years in studying for the bar, he entered at once upon his political career, being nominated and elected to the State Legislature, where he served two years. In 1810, he was elected to the United States House of Representatives, where he was put upon the Committee of Foreign Relations, at that time a very important committee, owing to the position of this country towards Europe. As chairman of this committee, he reported the bill declaring war against England.

In 1817, Mr. Calhoun became Secretary of War in Mr. Monroe's cabinet. Under his control the war office became a model of administrative excellence. In 1821, there being no choice of president by the people, John Quincy Adams was elected as such by the House of Representatives, Mr. Calhoun having been chosen vice-president by the people. In 1828, he was again elected vice-president by the people, Gen. Jackson being named president. In 1832, Mr. Calhoun resigned the office of vice-president, in order to be sent to the Senate from his State, to sustain the political opinions of South Carolina on the tariff question. This question was debated in the winter of 1833, where the South Carolinian had to sustain, alone and unassisted, the entire weight of the argument, against Daniel Webster, and a host of others. The controversy, which received the name of the "nullification question," was, however, closed by the compromise bill of Mr. Clay. In 1843, he retired from the Senate, having served with that body upwards of ten years. In 1844, the last year of President Tyler's term, he filled the office of Secretary of State. In 1845, he was returned to the Senate, where he still continues to serve.



THE CITY OF BAGDAD.

BAGDAD, a famous city of Asiatic Turkey, and now the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the Tigris, about 200 miles from the junction of that river with the Euphrates. Its population amounts to about 70,000, and consists chiefly of Arabs and Turks. It stands on both banks of the river, and the communication between the two sides is kept up by means of a bridge of boats. The town is of an oblong shape, and is surrounded by a high wall of brick and mud, flanked at regular distances with towers, some of which are of immense size. It is, however, a place of no strength. The town is meanly built; the streets are so narrow, that when two horsemen meet they can hardly pass each other. Few of the ancient buildings remain, and but little of its former splendor has survived the spirit of trade which has seized upon it in modern times. The city was founded in the 7th century, and was for a long time the capital city of the Caliphs; it was here that lived and flourished Haroun

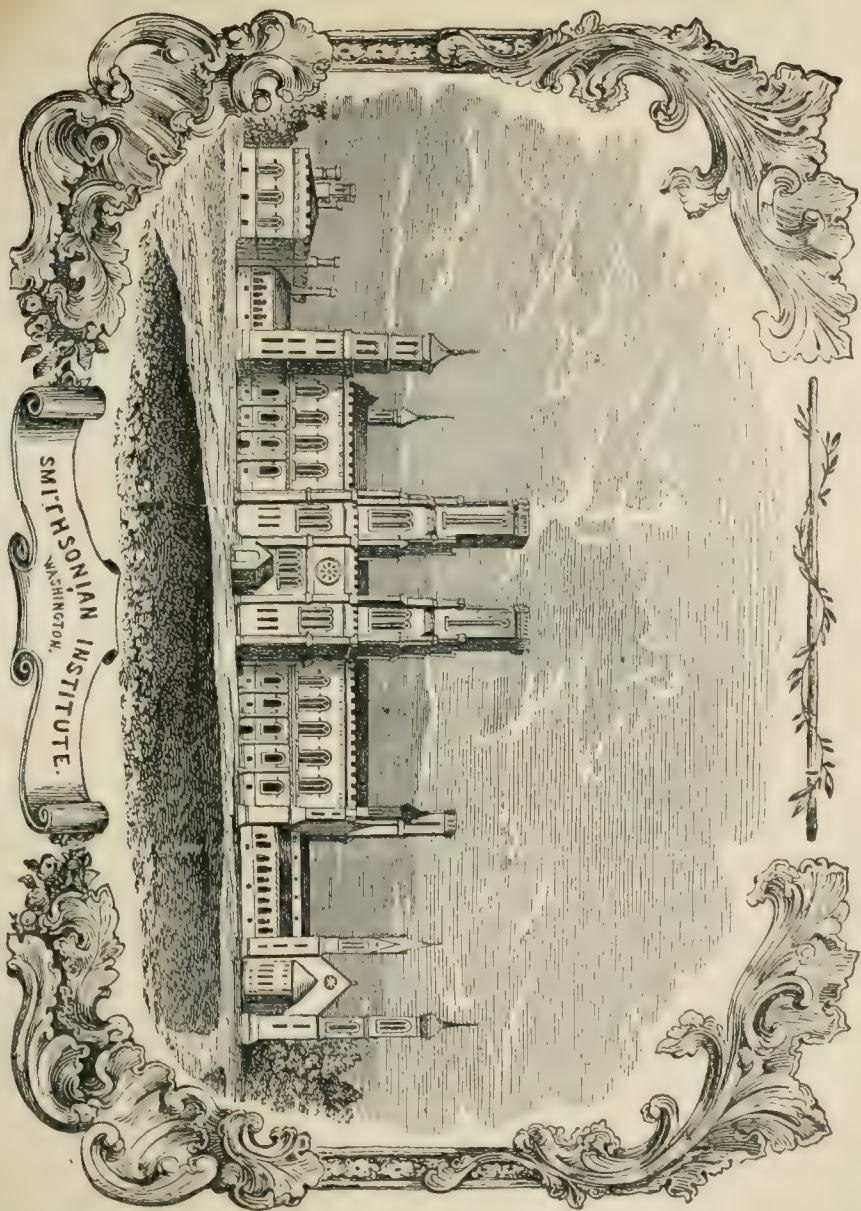
al Raschid, of Arabian-Nights memory. The tomb of Zobeida, the favorite among his wives, is among the buildings of another age, which still exist. Not a vestige remains of the far-famed palace of the Caliphs; and the spot where it stood is not even ascertained.

Bagdad was, some years since, a place of great trade, and the resort of merchants from almost every quarter of the east. Of late years, however, the commerce of the city has a good deal declined, in consequence of the inability of the government to repress the attacks and exactions of the Arabs. The climate, though very hot, is admitted to be very healthy, but the natives are universally subject to a sort of cutaneous disorder. In this city, which was formerly the capital of the scientific world, reading and writing are now rare accomplishments: and when Niebuhr was there, there was not a single dealer of books in the town, nor were there any means of obtaining a single volume. Since 1638, the city has belonged to the Turks.

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION AT WASHINGTON.

IN the year 1835, James Smithson died in England, leaving a bequest to the U. States, of five hundred thousand dollars, to be used for establishing an institution at Washington, to be called the "Smithsonian Institution for the Increase and Diffusion of Knowledge among Men." The government sent Mr. Rush to England, to secure the funds, which was accomplished. After a

lapse of several years, Congress, in 1846, passed a law establishing the institution, and a building is now erected for its accommodation. The establishment is under a board of 15 regents, appointed by Congress, and it has already begun its labors. It is to have a library and scientific apparatus; is to give courses of lectures, and issue books of a scientific and useful character.





MARCO BOZZARIS.

MARCO BOZZARIS, styled the Leonidas of Modern Greece, was born in the mountain of Epirus, about the end of the 18th century. Being yet a boy at the close of the war between his countrymen the Souliots, and Ali Pacha of Janina — he and his father were among the few that escaped to the Ionian islands, then under the protection of Russia. In 1820, a war broke out between the Sultan of Turkey and Ali Pacha, and Bozzaris offered his services, and those of 800 Souliots under his command to the Turkish admiral against his old enemy Ali Pacha. Soon after, however, having reason to complain of the Turks, and receiving favorable proposals from Ali Pacha, they went over to him, and were replaced in possession of their native mountains. The war was continued with general success on the part of the Souliots during the years 1820 and '21. Towards the close of the year 1821, the Greek revolution broke out, and in

Feb., 1822, Ali Pacha died. From this time, Bozzaris and his Souliots continued the war on their own account. In May and June of the same year, they defeated the Sultan's army, under the command of Rhoursid Pacha, with great slaughter. At the same time Prince Mavrocordato landed at Missolonghi with a body of regular Greek troops, and was joined by Bozzaris. Soon after, they lost, through treachery, the battle of Petta. The greater part of the Souliots now left Bozzaris, and signed a capitulation with the Turks, by which they gave up Souli and retired to Cephalonia. Bozzaris remained with a handful of Souliots at Missolonghi, determined to defend it to the last. A Hydriote flotilla coming to his relief, the Turks raised the siege, and retired into Epirus. In the summer of the year 1823, the Pacha of Scodra advanced with a large force of Albanians upon Missolonghi, determined upon taking it. Bozzaris, who knew

the city was unable to resist a regular siege, and yet was aware of its importance to the Greek cause, sallied forth to meet the enemy. A battle ensued, in which 800 Albanians were killed, and in which the army of the Pacha suffered great losses. Bozzaris was shot in the lungs, and a second time in the face, when he fell and expired. His self-devotedness to the cause of Greece was the means of saving Missolonghi for two years more: for it resisted all attempts against it, till 1825, when it was besieged and taken by the Egyptians under Ibrahim Pacha. The stirring lines of our countryman, Halleck, have served to give additional interest to the fate and character of the Grecian hero!

"At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in supppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power;
In dreams, through camp and court, he bore
The trophies of a conqueror;

In dreams, his song of triumph heard;
Then wore his monarch's signet ring, —
Then pressed that monarch's throne, — a king;
As wild his thoughts, and gay of wing,
As Eden's garden bird.

An hour passed on — the Turk awoke;
That bright dream was his last;
He woke to hear his sentry's shriek,
'To arms! they come! the Greek! the Greek!
He woke — to die midst flame and smoke,
And shout, and groan, and sabre stroke,
And death-shots falling thick and fast
As lightnings from the mountain cloud;
And heard, with voice as trumpet loud,
Bozzaris cheer his band; —
'Strike — till the last armed foe expires,
Strike — for your altars and your fires,
Strike — for the green graves of your sires,
God — and your native land!

They fought, like brave men, long and well,
They piled that ground with Moslem slain,
They conquered — but Bozzaris fell,
Bleeding at every vein.
His few surviving comrades saw
His smile, when rang their proud hurrah,
And the red field was won;
Then saw in death his eyelids close
Calmly, as to a night's repose,
Like flowers at set of sun."



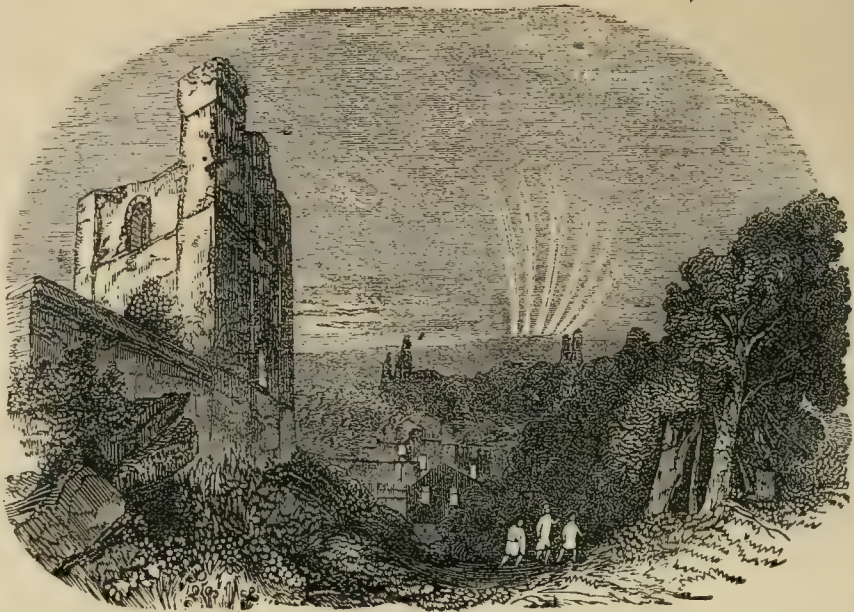
THE KAMTSKADALES.

WE here give a picture of a singular race of people, called the Kamtskadales, and who are subject to Russia. They live on a long peninsula, which might seem the world's end. It is, in fact, the very north-eastern extremity of Asia, and is one of the coldest spots on the earth. It is impossible to raise wheat there; but there are some berries and roots, which the people eat.

They have a compensation for the scantiness of vegetable productions in the profusion of animal life, which seems alike to fill earth, air, and water. The coasts swarm with seals and other marine animals; the rocks are coated with shell fish; the bays are almost choked with herrings, and the

rivers with salmon. Flocks of grouse, wild geese, and ducks, often darken the air. The country abounds in bears, which are fat, and greatly esteemed by the inhabitants.

Thus these people are supplied with an almost perpetual feast; and they consequently have sunk into a state of lazy, drunken sensuality. They are a short, copper-colored race, greatly resembling the Esquimaux. Like them, they have dogs, which they use in sledges. Their winter houses are half sunk in the earth, while those for summer are elevated on poles above it. They have wild dances, in which each man imitates a bear.



The Comet of 1744.

COMETS.

COMETS are light, vapory bodies, which move round the sun in orbits much less circular than those of the planets. Their orbits, in other words, are very long ellipses or ovals, having the sun near one of the ends. Comets usually have two parts, a body or nucleus, and a tail; but some have a body only. The body appears as a thin, vapory, luminous mass, of globular form; it is so thin that, in some cases, the stars have been seen through it. The tail is a lighter or thinner luminous vapor, surrounding the body, and streaming far out from it, in one direction. A vacant space has been observed between the body and the enveloping matter of the tail; and it is equally remarkable that the tail has in some instances appeared less bright along the middle, immediately behind the nucleus, as if it were a stream which that nucleus had in some measure parted into two.

In ignorant ages, the sudden appearance of a comet in the sky never failed to occasion great alarm, both on account of its threatening appearance, and because it was considered as a sign that war, pestilence, or famine, was about to afflict mankind. Knowledge has dispelled all such fancies; but yet we are not well acquainted with the nature of comets.

Out of the great multitude—certainly not less than one thousand—which are

supposed to exist, about one hundred and fifty have been made the subject of scientific observation. Instead of revolving, like the planets, nearly on the plane of the sun's equator, it is found that they approach his body from all parts of surrounding space. At first, they are seen slowly advancing, with a comparatively faint appearance. As they approach the sun, the motion becomes quicker, and at length they pass round him with very great rapidity, and at a comparatively small distance from his body. The comet of 1680 approached within one sixth of his diameter. After passing, they are seen to emerge from his rays, with an immense increase to their former brilliancy and to the length of their tails. Their motion then becomes gradually slower, and their brilliancy diminishes, and at length they are lost in distance. It has been ascertained that their movement round the sun is in accordance with the same law which regulates the planetary movements, being always the quicker the nearer to his body, and the slower the more distant. In the remote parts of space their motions must be extremely slow.

Three comets have been observed to return, and their periods of revolution have been calculated. The most remarkable of these is one usually denominated Halley's comet, from the astronomer who first calcu-

lated its period. It revolves round the sun in about seventy-five years, its last appearance being at the close of 1835. Another, called Enke's comet, from Professor Enke, of Berlin, has been found to revolve once in 1207 days, or three and one third years; but, in this case, the revolving body is found, at each successive approach to the sun to



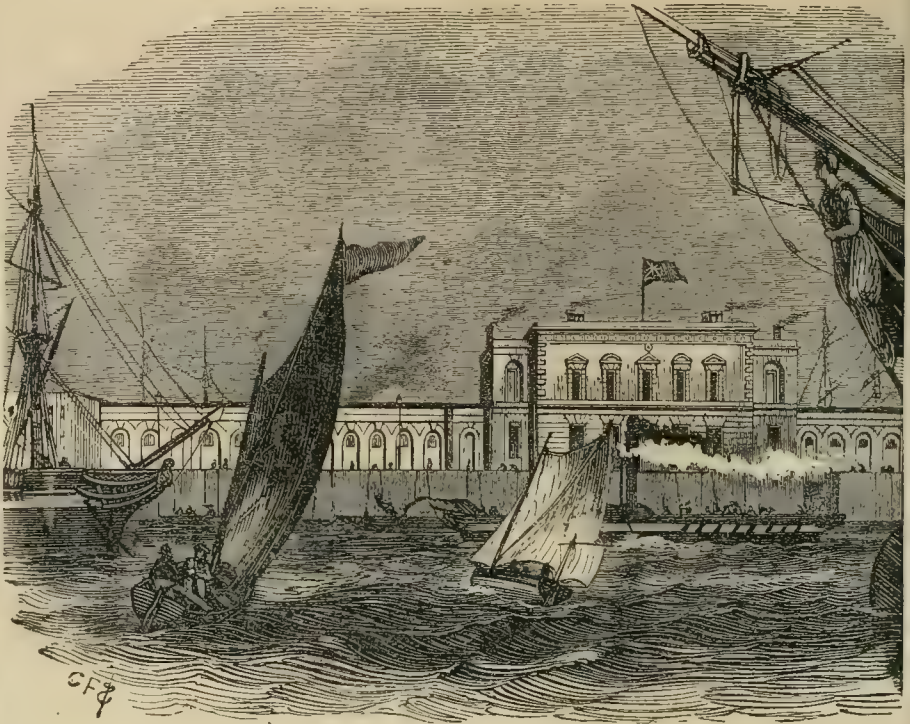
View of Enke's Comet.

be a little earlier than on the previous occasion, showing that its orbit is gradually lessening, so that it may be expected ultimately to fall into the sun. This fact has suggested that some part of that space through which the comet passes, must be occupied by a matter presenting some resistance to the movement of any denser body; and it is supposed that this matter may prove to be the same which has been described as constituting the zodiacal light. It is called a *resisting medium*; and future observations upon it are expected to be attended with results of a most important nature, seeing that, if there be such a matter extending beyond the orbit of the earth, that planet, in whose welfare we are so much interested, will be exposed to the same ultimate fate with Enke's comet.

The third, named Beila's comet, from M. Beila of Josephstadt, revolves round the sun in six and three quarters years. It is very small, and has no tail. In 1832, this comet passed through the earth's path about a month before the arrival of our planet at the same point. If the earth had been a month earlier at that point, or the comet a month later in crossing it, the two bodies would have been brought together, and the earth, in all probability, would have instantly become unfit for the existence of the human family. Comets are often affected in their motions by the attraction of the planets.

Jupiter, in particular, has been described by an astronomer as a perpetual stumbling-block in their way. In 1770, a comet got entangled amidst the satellites of that planet, and was thereby thrown out of its usual course, while the motions of the satellites were not in the least affected.

Comets often pass unobserved, in consequence of the part of the heavens in which they move being then under daylight. During a total eclipse of the sun, which happened sixty years before Christ, a large comet, not formerly seen, became visible, near the body of the obscured luminary. On many occasions, their smallness and distance render them visible only by the aid of the telescope. On other occasions, they are of vast size. The comet now called Halley's, at its appearance in 1456, covered a sixth part of the visible extent of the heavens, and was likened to a Turkish scimitar. The comet of 1680, which was observed by Sir Isaac Newton, had a tail calculated to be 123,000,000 of miles in length, a space greater than the distance of the earth from the sun. There was a comet in 1744 which had six tails, spread out like a fan across a large space in the heavens. The tails of comets usually stretch in the direction opposite to the sun, both in advancing and retiring, and with a slight wave at the outer extremity, as if that part experienced some resistance.



RAILWAYS.

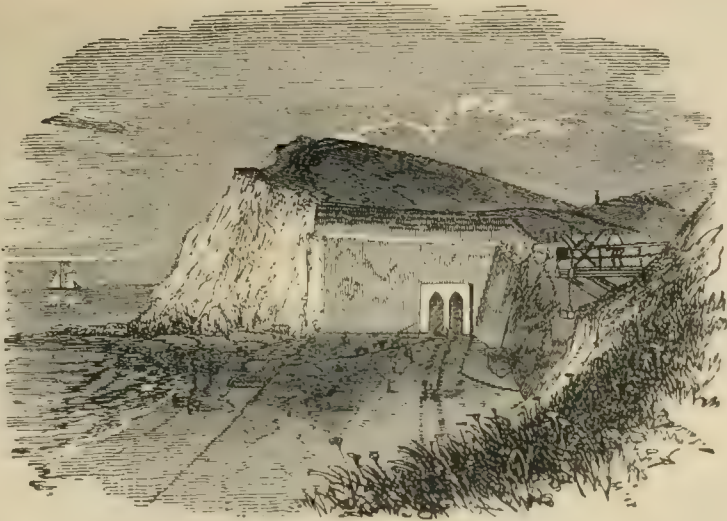
WHEN we consider that it is not yet twenty years since the first public railroad was built, we cannot but be amazed to see to what extent these works are carried, not only in this country, but in various parts of Europe. In England, especially, they are very numerous, covering the country like network. These works are executed much more perfectly than similar ones in this country. Labor is cheaper there than here; and for this reason they bestow upon them more care, and finish them more thoroughly. Many of the stations are fitted up in a truly splendid style, the architecture being generally in excellent taste. The tracks are almost always double; the roads are fenced in; the banks are neatly turfed, and, in many places, they are embellished with patches of beautiful flowers. Above is given a view of the terminus of the railroad from London to Blackwall, a distance of five miles from St. Paul's. It stands out into the Thames, and will give an idea of the good taste usually displayed in these works.

The labor, in some of the English railways, is immense. Two tunnels are cut through the rock in Shakspeare's Cliff, at Dover.

No obstacle is too formidable for the enterprise now exerted in the execution of railways. Hills give way, valleys are filled up, rivers are crossed, forests fall prostrate, rocks are perforated, houses are removed;—everything seems to yield before the railway spirit in England.

It might seem that there was enough of this sort of enterprise in our country; but it is nothing, compared to the *mania* which has lately been raging in Great Britain. Not only were the works themselves immense, but the spirit of speculation even outstripped the enterprises actually undertaken. Every body seemed to be bitten by this mad dog, and a person who was cool and sound, was deemed out of his senses by the mass of the people. The fever was not confined to brokers and capitalists, but lawyers and doctors, clergy and laity, farmers, mechanics, tradesmen, and even women, were all carried away by the epidemic.

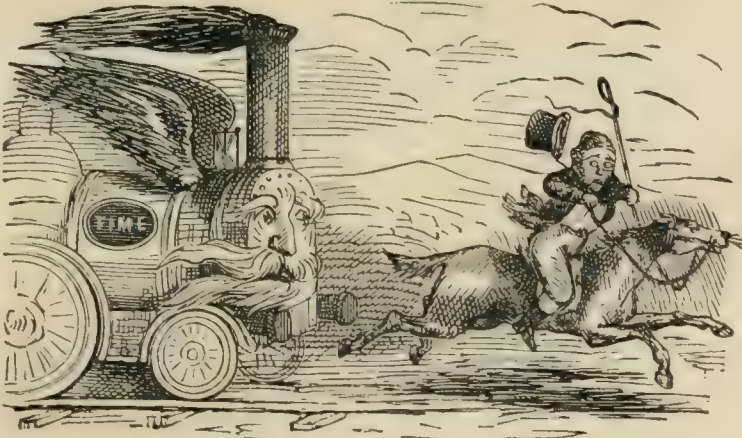
That witty paper, called "*Punch*," made not a little sport out of the general rage for speculation in railway shares. In one number, there was a picture, which we copy on the next page, representing a locomotive hurrying along with terrific speed, and a



Tunnel in Shakspeare's Cliff

mounted fox-hunter flying before it, striving to escape from the formidable monster. The engine has wings; and the word *Time*, inscribed upon the boiler, seems to intimate

the changes and innovations which the progress of years is making in the established manners, customs, and opinions, of society. Beneath the engraving was an account of a



March of Improvement!

meeting of fox-hunters, supposed to have been held to devise measures to prevent the hunting-grounds from being destroyed by railroads, thus putting an end to the good old gentlemanly sport of fox-hunting!

Though the above is a joke, yet there is much general truth at the bottom of it. In fact, one improvement is succeeding another with such rapidity, that, a half century hence, the world will present a very different aspect from what it now does. There is every probability that, by that time, railroads will be spread over the four quarters of the earth; magnetic telegraphs will encircle the globe, and the whole human fam-

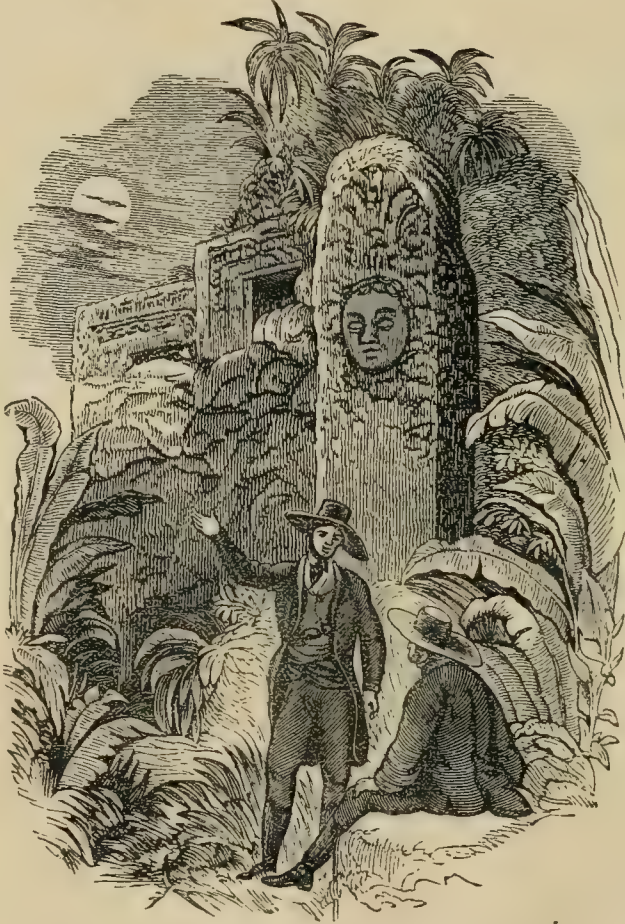
ily be brought into a degree of companionship and sympathy almost inconceivable at the present moment.

In one of his papers, Punch gives us the following amusing paragraph, being an imitation of the commercial reports common in the newspapers:—

"The demand for iron for the railroads is being sensibly felt in the feverish state of saucepans, which have risen to an alarming height within the last few weeks. A good tea-kettle, which was quoted, in the 'New Cut,' as low as ninepence, a month ago, has rushed up to a shilling, without the *coupon*; that is to say with no lid to it.

The buoyancy in gridirons has been quite frightful; for their resemblance to railway lines has made them the object of competition among various companies. Pokers were dreadfully firm, without the smallest probability of their yielding; and, there being no chance of their giving way, there was a good deal of activity. With the exception, however, of pokers, there was very

little stirring; for irons were flat, and people seemed afraid of burning their fingers. In the United States, railroads are increasing, and the new Depot of the Fitchburg railroad in Boston, with other examples, show that there is a rising taste in the construction of the public buildings connected with these works.



RUINS OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

Ruins have been long known to exist at Utatlan, the ancient capital of the Indian kingdom in Oaxaca, destroyed by Alvarado, the companion of Cortez. Here are still to be seen the ruins of a splendid palace, containing apartments for the king, for the various branches of the royal family, and for a numerous body of attendants and guards. These are supposed to be relics of the civilization of the Tultecs, who were driven from

Mexico, south, in the beginning of the 12th century, by the ruder Aztecs.

It was only, however, in the middle of the last century, that an astonishing collection of ruins was, for the first time, revealed to Christendom, as existing near Palenque, in the centre of a vast desert of woods, at some two hundred and fifteen miles northwest of Guatemala. These stupendous ruins belonged to the labors of a race, and

went back to an origin, of which no tradition is left. They are scattered for twenty miles along an elevated ridge, and consist of aqueducts, bridges, palaces, and temples, of immense grandeur, and exquisite workmanship, all of stone, and they go by the name of "the stone houses," among the people of the country.

Here are numerous figures of men and animals, cut in relief upon the stones, some of them of colossal size, together with paintings and characters supposed to represent the sounds of a phonetic alphabet. Here are hieroglyphics, representing the mysteries of sun worship, the most ancient corruption of the true religion, with the cross and other Egyptian and Hindoo symbols.

This city of Culhuacan (improperly called Palenque) appears to have been sixteen or twenty miles in circumference; its ruins still show temples, fortifications, tombs, pyr-

amids, bridges, aqueducts, houses; and there have been found vases, idols, medals, instruments of music, colossal statues, and, what is very remarkable, bas reliefs, quite well executed, and ornamented with characters which appear to be veritable hieroglyphics.

Everything announces that this was once the residence of a people very advanced in architecture, sculpture, and even painting; a people, whose tall and slender forms, and beautiful proportions, and traits of countenances, have nothing Asiatic, African, or Malay.

The great temple, of a square form, and surrounded by a colonnade, is about 325 feet long and thirty-two high; its walls are four feet thick. The interior is divided into several masses of building, separated by courts. From the midst of the structure, rises a tower about seventy-five feet high, which probably served as a belvedere,



Ruins in Yucatan.

or observatory; four stories high of it still remain. The staircase which leads to the summit is at the centre. It is lighted by

windows pierced in each side, at each story; the architecture is simple and elegant. Beneath the temple are vast subter-

anean structures, into which you descend by steps. The walls are adorned with bas reliefs sculptured upon stone, and covered with a very fine stucco or plaster. The

personages are eight or nine feet high. Similar ruins are found in Yucatan. At one place, the building is a square of six hundred and fifty feet each front.



LOUIS PHILIPPE.

HISTORY affords few parallels to the eventful career of the individual whose name we have written above. Fortune has mingled in his lot her most showy, if not most substantial gifts, with her bitterest disappointments and reverses. His life has been throughout, a romantic drama, resembling more the creations of fiction, than the actual experience of a man of the world. But the last act is doubtless over, for the ex-king evinces no desire but to spend the remainder of his days in peaceful retirement,

"The world forgetting, by the world forgot,"

though, perhaps, the latter part of the quotation cannot soon be applied to him.

Louis Philippe, the present head of the Orleans branch of the Bourbon family, was born in Paris, Oct. 6, 1773, and is now, consequently, in the seventy-fifth year of his age. He was the oldest son of Louis Philippe Joseph, Duke of Orleans, and Marie, only daughter and heiress of the wealthy Duke of Penthièvre. His father was considered the richest man in Europe, but was effeminate and voluptuous, though a kind parent. Desirous of imparting to

his family a sound education, he entrusted his five children to the care of Madame de Sillery, better known as Countess de Genlis, who was eminently qualified for the task. Under her wise supervision, the minds of her youthful charge were not only stored with knowledge, but principles of religion and patriotism were carefully instilled into them. Nor was their physical education neglected. The boys were trained to endure all kinds of bodily fatigue, and were instructed in medicine, gardening, basket-making, weaving, and carpentry. Young Louis Philippe took great delight in these pursuits, and especially excelled in cabinet-making. Countess de Genlis, speaking of him at the time, says, "He has no passion for money; he is disinterested; despises glare; and is consequently truly noble. Finally, he has an excellent heart, which is common to his brothers and sister, and which, joined to reflection, is capable of producing all other good qualities."

In June, 1791, Louis Philippe assumed the office of colonel of the 14th regiment of dragoons. The war with Austria breaking out the year following, he was called into



Claremont.

active service, in which he distinguished himself. But while thus engaged in repelling a foreign enemy, the revolution at home was hastening to a terrible crisis. The monarchy having fallen, a decree of banishment was hastily passed against all members of the Bourbon-Caput race. Though this act of proscription, which was aimed at the Orleans family, by its enemies, was soon repealed, the circumstance was of too alarming a character to be disregarded, and Louis Philippe entreated his father to withdraw with his family to America. His advice was disregarded, and the unfortunate Duke of Orleans followed Louis XVI. to the scaffold, Nov. 6, 1793. His wife was at the same time thrown into prison. Their son was cited to appear before the Committee of Public Safety, but he escaped the fate of his father by flight, and became a wanderer and an exile from 1793 to 1814, in various parts of Europe and in the United States. His patrimonial estates were all confiscated to enrich the persecutors of his family. In his wanderings, he visited Switzerland, Norway, Denmark, Lapland, and the North Cape, beyond the Arctic Circle, concealing his rank, and travelling under a feigned name; sometimes alone and on foot, and at others employing himself as a schoolmaster for subsistence. After these wanderings in Europe, he arrived in Philadelphia, in October, 1796, visited most of the States from Virginia northward, descended the Mississippi to New Orleans, in the winter of 1798, and in February, 1800, arrived in London from New York. From that period, he resided principally at Twickenham, in England, until the restoration of the Bourbons. At their restoration, he returned to France, and obtained his patrimonial estates. Not adopting fully the arbitrary principles of the elder branch of the dynasty, he lived most of the time, from 1814 to 1830, in retirement, at his country seat at Neuilly.

In the revolution of July, 1830, eighty-nine persons who had been chosen to the Chamber of Deputies, and whose election Charles Tenth had annulled, assembled at Paris, and appointed Louis Philippe lieutenant-general of the kingdom. On the 3d of August, he opened the session of Chambers, in that capacity, the Chamber of Deputies then consisting of the eighty-nine persons who had made him lieutenant-general, and a number of their associates, and the House of Peers consisting of those who had been created by the Bourbons.

In his address, Louis Philippe commu-

nicated to the members of Parliament the abdication of Charles and of his son, and recommended them to fill the vacancy, which was accordingly done by the choice of Louis Philippe, under what was, at that time, considered a liberal charter. On the 9th, he accepted and took the coronation oath. Lafayette, believing that a limited, constitutional monarchy was the government best suited to the condition of France, and that Louis Philippe would administer the government on correct principles, assisted in his elevation.

But so intoxicating is power, that in the course of five years next succeeding the elevation of this king, he had become to resemble his despotic predecessors, and entirely disappointed the liberals who had raised him to power. On the 28th of July, 1835, the fifth anniversary of the revolution, as the king in great pomp was passing opposite the Boulevards of the Temple, an explosion took place which killed and wounded thirty-five of the train, sixteen of whom died instantly. A ball grazed the king's arm, and a second delay in the discharge saved the king's life. This instrument of destruction was made in a small room, about seven feet square, and was built of wood, braced with iron. Twenty-five gun barrels, fully charged, and connected by a train of powder, were fixed on this machine, with the fronts slightly depressed, so that the balls might reach any one passing in the street on horseback. The guns were so heavily charged, that five of them burst, severely wounding the assassins. But this dreadful warning did not deter the king from his course, and his government gradually became more corrupt, and illiberal, till the memorable outbreak of February, 1848. His prime minister at this time was M. Guizot, a man of eminent talents, which were unhappily prostituted to the promotion of the selfish policy of the king.

The events of the revolution of February are fresh in the memories of all. Amid the terrible excitement of the 24th, the king hastily abdicated the throne in favor of his grandson, and finding this step ineffectual, the same day he sought safety in flight. After wandering about for some days, he succeeded in reaching the coast, with the queen and several members of the household, they having disguised themselves as far as possible. Owing to the boisterous state of the weather, it was nearly a week before they embarked for England. They arrived at Newhaven harbor, by the steamer

Express, on Friday morning, March 3d, the king partly in sailor's dress, and the queen in a sad plight. They were kindly received; and a few days after, they were joined by the Duke and Duchess of Nemours, and it was decided that they should proceed direct to Claremont, where they have mainly since remained. The residence is shown in the engraving upon the opposite page.

A French lady, admitted to an interview with the ex-royal family, since their sojourn at Claremont, gives the following account of her visit:—"I was ushered into a drawing-room on the ground floor, wherein were seated the queen and the Duchess de Nemours. Her majesty was occupied in writing, while the fair young duchess was engaged upon some kind of needlework, which, from its bulk and homely appearance, certainly did not look like a lady's fancy work. Up and down upon the gravel path before the long windows of the apartment, strolled, or rather shuffled, an aged man, leaning upon a huge knotted stick. He was followed by a large liver-and-white

spaniel, who seemed to subdue his pace to that of his master; and altogether the picture thus presented was one of the most forlorn and melancholy description. I cannot tell you how greatly I was shocked, when this aged man entered, through a glass door, shivering and complaining of the cold,—and I recognized the features of our king, Louis Philippe. His face is much bloated, and he is older by ten years, than when I saw him in January last. He knew me, however, on the instant, and endeavored to join in the conversation, but soon sank into a *fautical* by the fire, and seemed, presently, to be absorbed in deep thought. The queen was cheerful enough—almost gay. Her excessive devotion has created a degree of fatalism in her mind, like that of the orientals."

The family of the ex-king consists at present of four sons and one daughter, two of his children having deceased. The eldest is Louis, Duke de Nemours, who was born in 1814, and married Victoria Augusta, a cousin of Prince Albert. Francis, Prince



Prince de Joinville and Duke d'Aumale.

de Joinville, is the most popular of the sons of Louis Philippe. He was born in 1818, and married Francisca, a sister of the Emperor of Brazil, and of the Queen of Portugal.

The other members of the family are Henry, Duke d'Aumale, late governor of Algiers; Anthony, Duke of Montpensier, who married a sister of the Queen of Spain,

and Louisa, Queen of Belgium. The eldest son, Ferdinand, Duke of Orleans, was killed in jumping from his carriage, 13th July, 1842. He was a favorite of the French, and there is a beautiful chapel to his memory, near the spot where he was killed, on the road beyond the *Arch de Triumphi*. He left two sons, upon the eldest of whom, the Count of Paris, Louis Philippe attempted to



Chapel of St. Ferdinand, in memory of the Duke d'Orleans.

bestow the crown, when he could no longer retain it himself. But a voice cried, when he was presented to the Chambers by O. Barrot,—“It is too late,” and the sceptre departed from the Orleans branch of the Bourbons, probably forever.

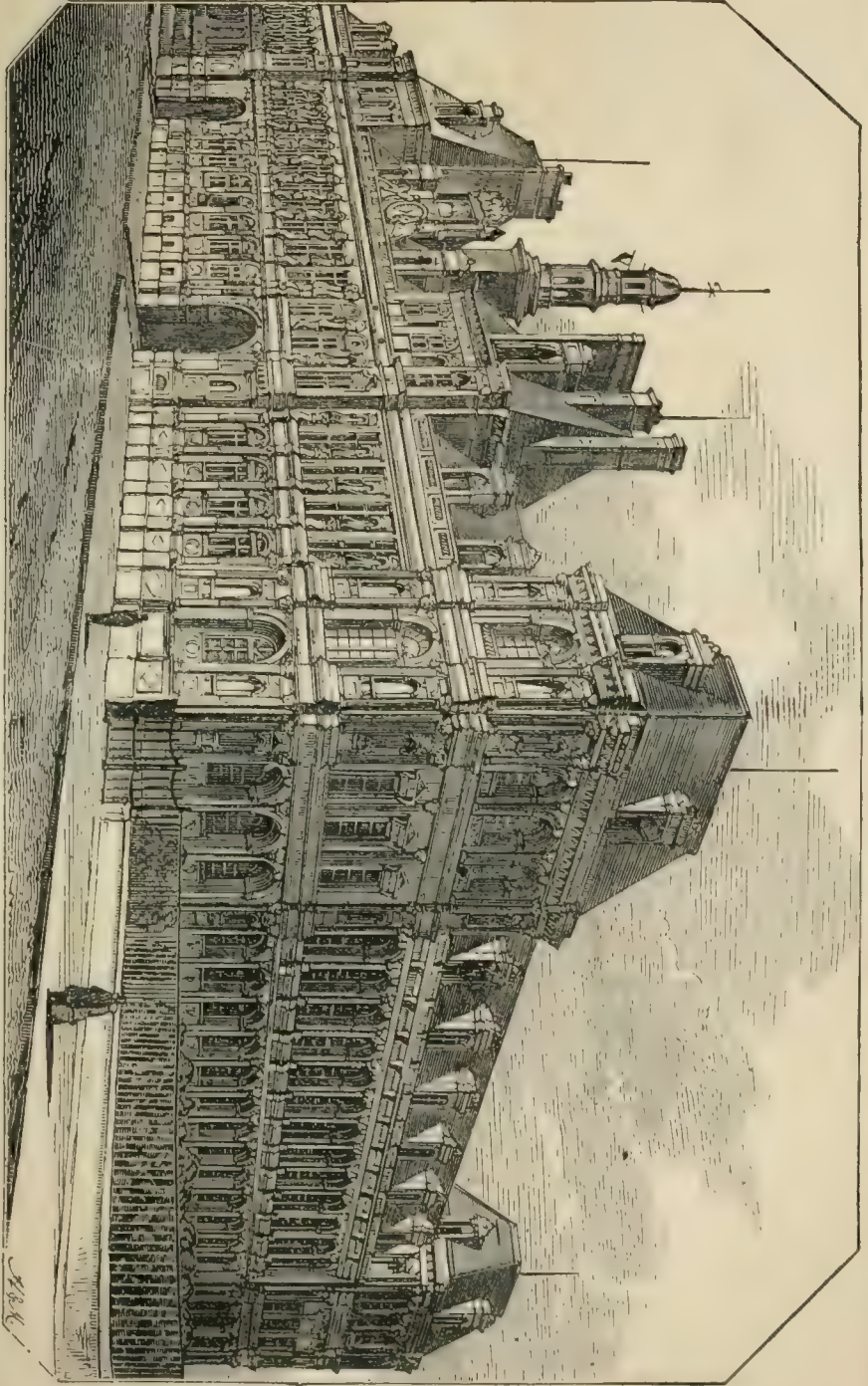
THE HOTEL DE VILLE OF PARIS.

This celebrated building is the City Hall of Paris, and may be called the Faneuil Hall of the French metropolis. It is not only one of the finest specimens of ancient architecture in Europe, but is highly interesting from its historical associations.

This edifice was begun in 1533, on the site of the *Maison aux Piliers*, which was purchased by the municipality in 1357, for the same purposes as the houses which had successively served for their previous meetings, ever since their incorporation as a city government. Near this site, on the adjacent banks of the Seine, the founders of Paris, a wandering tribe of fishermen, erected their huts,—the earliest growth of a wilderness of buildings. The first stone of the Hotel was laid July 15, 1533, but various interruptions prevented the structure from being completed before 1628. In 1801, the Hotel, which had been much damaged during the war of the Fronde, and still more during the revolution, was repaired, and preserved from further dilapidation, by being converted into the seat of the prefecture. In 1841, very extensive additions and alterations were completed, by which the original façade has been elongated, and the entire

building nearly quadrupled in extent—so as to form an immense quadrangle of the same style of architecture as the original, with four splendid façades, completely isolated from the surrounding houses. It is the residence of the prefect of the Seine, and the centre of the municipal jurisdiction of the departments. Besides the public offices, occupying 191 rooms, it contains several halls, in which the meetings of various societies are held, and a suite of magnificent state apartments. At present, the original front, displaying the architecture which prevailed in Italy, during the sixteenth century, is increased by two main bodies more, flanked with pavilions, in keeping with the old portion, the whole being adorned with engaged Corinthian columns, and niches filled by twenty-eight statues. The ornaments are exquisitely sculptured, and its effect, as a monument of the epoch, is very grand.

The Hotel de Ville was the theatre of many of the principal events of the Revolution of 1789. Fortunately, it took only an honorable share in that part of French history. It became, says Briffault, the palace, as it were, of the revolution. There



The Hotel des Villes or City Hall, of Paris.

sat at the Common Council of Paris, and the Committee of Public Safety; there the drama of the ninth Thermidor reached its catastrophe; there fell Robespierre, that frightful personification of the era of terror. The Place de l'Hotel de Ville was the head-quarters of the revolutionary force; the citizens hurried thither to form civic bands in support of the law. Turbulence, disorder, pillage, and murder, prepared elsewhere their means of destruction; elsewhere gathered those mobs whose successes have sullied that epoch. The Place de l'Hotel de Ville remained pure from crimes, and ever resounded only with the generous accents of a people reclaiming their rights.

Under the empire, it hailed with enthusiasm the military glory of France. It repeated with transport the echoes of victory; it welcomed with almost frantic fondness those festivals which celebrated the triumphs of the army. Napoleon would have felt that something was wanting to his renown, had it not awakened rejoicing shouts around the Hotel de Ville of Paris. The emperor knew how to strengthen the ties between the throne and the city, by manifesting the pleasure which the annual banquet and ball, given in his honor at the Hotel, afforded to him. This ball usually took place on the anniversary of his marriage, when the festal display at the Tuileries was rivalled by another at the Hotel de Ville, where Napoleon took pride in presenting the empress, not only to a chosen company of the burgesses, but also at the windows, to the admiring populace. No illuminations could outshine those with which, on such occasions, the Place de Grève was resplendent. The fire-works were usually so arranged as to illustrate some brilliant page of recent warfare. It was history written in characters of fire.

Under the Restoration, the Hotel de Ville played a less conspicuous part. But the people were accustomed still to meet where they could hear all news of national importance, and which, according to immemorial usage, was brought to the hotel by special messengers. The births and marriages of the princes usually held the highest rank among those despatches. It was here that, at the time of Mallet's conspiracy, a rumor of the

downfall of Napoleon was accredited not only by the people, but even by M. Franchet, the prefect, whose first care was to prepare one of the halls for the use of the provisional government. The emperor could not pardon this excess of premature zeal, and deprived him of his office. No one knew better than Napoleon, what tremendous weight attaches to the decisions formed at the Hotel de Ville. "He was little disquieted," says Alison, "by the failure of the Russian campaign, till intelligence of the conspiracy of Mallet reached his ears; and that firmness which the loss of four hundred thousand men could not shake, was overturned by the news that the rebels in Paris had imprisoned the minister of police, and were within a hair's breadth of making themselves masters of the telegraph." The same historian declares that "if the insurgents of Paris can make themselves masters of the Hotel de Ville, France is more than half conquered." And M. de Chabrol, a witness in the trial of the last ministers of Charles X., did not hesitate to say that he regarded the possession of the Hotel de Ville as the assured sign of success for those who held it, or for those who could seize it.

The people of the "three glorious days" of July, in 1830, were well aware of this. The Place de Grève became the scene of their terrible combats; and victory was certain only when the tri-colored flag floated over the Hotel de Ville. The Tuileries and the Louvre were then mere outposts; the Hotel de Ville was the citadel of national sovereignty.

The central western window of the Hotel de Ville looks out from the principal room. It was from this window that Louis XVI. spoke to the populace with the cap of liberty on his head. It was at the same window that General Lafayette embraced Louis Philippe, and presented him to the people in 1830, saying, — "Here is the friend in need — this is the best of republics!"

It was in this room that the late provisional government of France held their court — and from this same window Lamartine addressed 80,000 Parisians, demanding the blood red flag of the revolution — soothing, by the magic of consummate eloquence, this vast agitated populace.

FRENCH REVOLUTION OF FEBRUARY, 1848.

THIS event, which was the beginning of the recent convulsions of Europe, was witnessed by the editor of these pages, and the following letter descriptive of the scenes which attended it in Paris was written to a friend in Boston, and published in the papers of the day.

Paris, March 4th, 1848.

As it has been my fortune to be in Paris, and an observer of many of the most stirring and striking occurrences during the late revolution, I propose to give you a brief consecutive narrative of what I saw and heard, embracing a sketch of other leading events. My purpose will be to *take you with me*, and make you a participator, as far as possible, in the scenes witnessed and emotions experienced by one who was on the spot.

Before I begin, it may be well to state a few particulars as to the political condition of France at the moment of the revolt. It is well known that Louis Philippe accepted the crown at the hands of Lafayette, after the struggle of July, 1830, the latter saying, as he presented the king and charter to the people, "*We give you the best of monarchies—the best of republics.*" The circumstances, all considered, pledged Louis Philippe to a liberal government, in which the good of the people should be the supreme object, and the popular will the predominating element.

He commenced his career under fair auspices, and for a time everything promised a happy fulfilment of what seemed his duty and his destiny. I chanced to be in Paris in 1832, and witnessed a celebration of the "Three glorious days." The king then reviewed 80,000 troops, chiefly National Guards. He was all day on horseback, and of course before the people. I saw hundreds of all classes step up to him and shake him by the hand. He was enthusiastically cheered everywhere, and seemed, indeed, the idol of the people. On visiting Paris in 1847, after a lapse of fifteen years, I was amazed at the change. Shut up in his palace, like the veiled prophet of Khorassan, and intrenched in military power, with a haughty ministry, pursuing an unbending course of policy, he seemed rather a despot of the old school—a Bourbon of the last century—than a citizen king crowned at the barricades. A great change had indeed come over the monarch; the possession of power had seduced his heart, and turned his head; and forgetting his

pledges, and blind to his true interest, he was busy in building up a dynasty that should hand down his name and fame to posterity.

It seemed, at a superficial glance, that he might realize his dream. He had acquired the reputation of being the most sagacious monarch of his time. He had improved and embellished the capital; on all sides his "image and superscription" were seen in connection with statues, fountains, edifices, and works of beauty and utility. France was happier than the adjacent countries. The famine and the pestilence, that had recently desolated neighboring states, had trod more lightly here. The king was blessed with a large family. These had all reached maturity, and were allied to kings and queens, princes and princesses. The upholders of the crown in the parliament were men whose names, alone, were a tower of strength. Peace reigned at home, and the army abroad had just succeeded in achieving a triumph over an enemy that had baffled them for seventeen years.

Such was the outward seeming of affairs; but there were threatening fires within, which might at any moment produce an earthquake. The thinking people were profoundly disgusted with the retrograde tendency of the government, with the corruption of its officers, the gradual subsidizing of the legislature by the crown, and the concentration of all the powers of the state in the hands of ONE MAN, who was now using them for family aggrandizement. Although the march of despotism had been cautious and stealthy, the plainest mind could see, and, indeed, the people generally began to feel, many galling evidences of the tyranny to which they had become actually subjected.

Among these grievances, were the constant increase of the national debt, and consequent increase of taxation, with the restraints put upon the liberty of the press and of speech. By a law of some years' standing, the people were prohibited from holding stated meetings of more than twenty persons, without license; and *reform banquets*, or meetings for the discussion of public affairs, of which about seventy had been held, in different parts of the kingdom, within the last year, were now pronounced illegal by the ministry, and a determination to suppress one, about to be held in the twelfth *arrondissement* of Paris, was solemnly announced by them in the Chamber of Deputies.



PRESENTATION OF FLAGS TO THE NATIONAL GUARDS.

It is material to bear in mind, that there are always in this metropolis at least 100,000 workmen, who live from day to day upon the labor, and who, upon the slightest check to trade, are plunged into poverty, if not starvation. At the moment of which we are speaking, this immense body of men, with their families, were suffering sorely from the stagnation of business in the capital. There were not less than 200,000 persons, who, for the space of three months, had hardly been able to obtain sufficient food to appease the cravings of hunger. How easy to stir up these people to rebellion!—how natural for them to turn their indignation against the king and his government! The opposition members seized the occasion now afforded them, to excite these discontented masses against the ministry; and it may be added, that the latter, by their rashness, did more than their enemies to prepare the mine, and set the match to the train.

The crisis was now at hand. The opposition deputies declared their intention to attend the proposed meeting; and in spite of the threats of the ministry, the preparations for the banquet went vigorously on. A place was selected in the Champs Elysées, and a building was in progress of erection for the celebration. The programme of the same was announced, the toast for the occasion was published, the orator (O. Barrot) selected. The day was fixed—an ominous day for tyranny—an auspicious one for human freedom. It was the 22d of February, the birth-day of Washington! Whether it has received a new title to its place in the calendar of liberty, must be left for the decision of time.

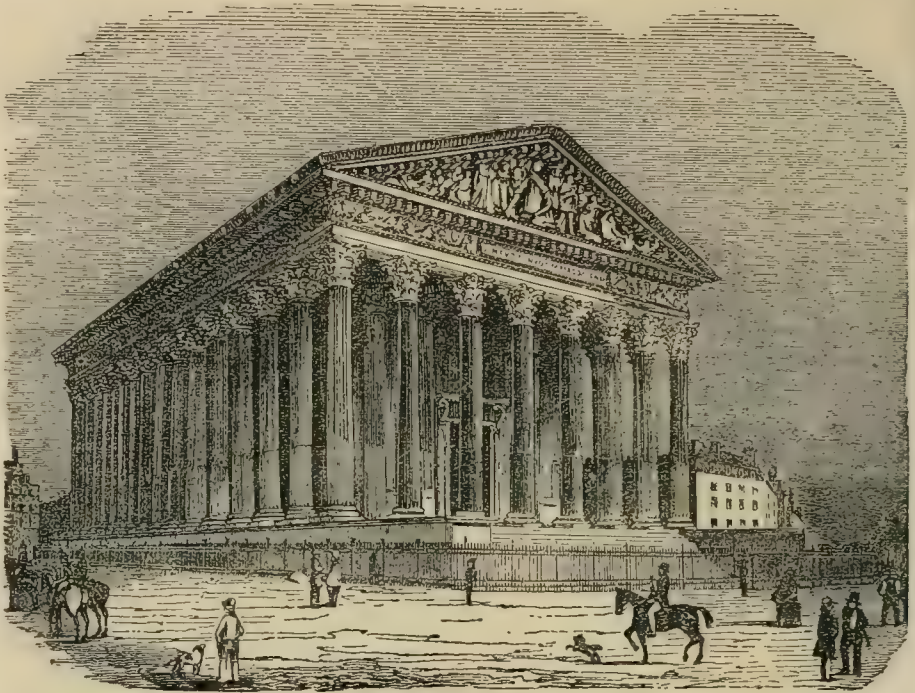
The evening of the 21st came, and then proclamations were issued by the joint action of the ministry and the police, prohibiting the banquet. This act, though it had been threatened, still fell like a thunderbolt upon the people. It was known that an immense military force had been quietly assembled in Paris and the vicinity, (80,000 troops, with artillery and ample munitions,) and that the garrisons around the Tuileries had been victualled as if for a siege. But it had not been believed that an attempt to stifle the voice of the people, so bold as this, would really be made. Yet such was the fact. The leaders of the opposition receded from their ground, and it was announced, in the morning papers of the 22d, that the banquet, being forbidden by the government, would not take place!

The morning of the 22d was dark and

drizzly. I had anticipated some manifestation of uneasiness, and at half-past nine o'clock went forth. Groups of people were reading the proclamations posted up at the corners of the streets, but all was tranquil. I walked along the Boulevards for a mile, yet saw no symptoms of the coming storm.

The place of meeting for the banquet had been fixed in the square of the Madeleine. This is at the western extremity of the Boulevards, and near the great central square, called the *Place de la Concorde*,—a point communicating directly with the Chamber of Deputies, the Champs Elysées, the gardens of the Tuileries, &c. At eleven o'clock, A. M., a dark mass was seen moving along the Boulevards towards the proposed place of meeting. This consisted of thousands of workmen from the faubourgs. In a few moments, the entire square of the Madeleine was filled with these persons, dressed almost exclusively in their characteristic costume, which consists of a blue tunic, called *blouse*—a garment which is made very much in the fashion of our farmers' frocks.

The opening scene of the drama had now begun. The mass rushed and eddied around the Madeleine, which, by the way, is the finest church and finest edifice in Paris. Such was the threatening aspect of the scene, that the shops were all suddenly shut, and the people around began to supply themselves with bread and other food, for three days. In a few moments, the avalanche took its course down the *Rue Royale*, swept across the *Place de la Concorde*, traversed the bridge over the Seine, and collected in swelling and heaving masses in the *Place*, or square, before the Chamber of Deputies. This building is defended in front by a high iron railing. The gate of this was soon forced, and some hundreds of the people rushed up the long flight of steps, and pausing beneath the portico, struck up the song of the *Marseillaise*,—a song, by the way, interdicted by law on account of its exciting character. The crowd continually increased; shouts, songs, cries, filled the air. East and west, along the *quais*, and through the streets behind the Chambers, came long lines of students from the various schools. Standing upon one of the pillars of the bridge, I commanded a view of the whole scene. It was one to fill the heart with the liveliest emotions. A hundred thousand people were now collected, seeming like an agitated sea, and sending forth a murmur like the voice of many waters. From the southern gate



Church of the Madeleine

of the Tuileries now issued two bodies of troops — one, on horseback, came along the northern *quai*. These were the *Municipal Guard*, a magnificent corps, richly caparisoned, and nobly mounted. Being picked men, and well paid, they were the chief reliance of the government, and for that very reason were hated by the people. The other body of troops were infantry of the line, and crossing the *Pont Royal*, came along the southern bank of the river. Both detachments approached the multitude, and crowding upon them, succeeded, at last, in clearing the space before the Chambers.

The greater part of the throng recrossed the bridge, and spread themselves over the *Place de la Concorde*. This square, perhaps the most beautiful in the world, is about five acres in extent. In the centre is the famed obelisk of Luxor; on either side of this is a splendid fountain, which was in full action during the scenes we describe. To the east is the garden of the Tuileries; to the west are the Champs Elysées. This vast area, so associated with art, and luxury, and beauty, was now crowded with an excited populace, mainly of the working classes. Their number constantly increased, and bodies of troops, foot and horse, arrived from various quarters, till the square was

literally covered. The number of persons here collected in one mass was over 100,000.

At the commencement, the mob amused themselves with songs, shouts, and pasquinades; but in clearing the space before the deputies, and driving the people across the bridge, the guards had displayed great rudeness. They pressed upon the masses, and one woman was crushed to death beneath the hoofs of the horses. Pebbles now began to be hurled at the troops from the square. Dashing in among the people sword in hand, the cavalry drove them away; but as they cleared one space, another was immediately filled. The effect of this was to chase and irritate the mob, who now began to seize sticks and stones, and hurl them in good earnest at their assailants.

While this petty war was going on, some thousands of the rioters dispersed themselves through the Champs Elysées, and began to build barricades across the main avenue. The chairs, amounting to many hundreds, were immediately disposed in three lines across the street. Benches, trellises, boxes fences — every movable thing within reach — were soon added to these barricades. An omnibus passing by was captured, detached from the horses, and tumbled into one of the lines. The flag was taken from the



Fontaine in the Place de la Concorde, Obelisk of Luxor, &c.

Panorama near by, and a vast procession paraded through the grounds, singing the *Marseillaise*, the *Parisienne*, and other patriotic airs.

Meanwhile, a small detachment of foot guards advanced to the scene of action; but they were pelted with stones, and took shelter in their guard-house. This was assailed with a shower of missiles, which rattled like hail upon its roof. The windows were dashed in, and a heap of brush near by was laid to the wall and set on fire. A body of horse guards soon arrived and dispersed the rioters; but the latter crossed to the northern side of the Champs Elysées, attacked another guard-house, and set it on fire. A company of the line came to the spot; but the mob cheered them, and they remained inactive. The revel proceeded, and, in face of the soldiers, the people fed the fire with fuel from the surrounding trees and fences, sung their songs, cracked their jokes, and cried, "*Down with Guizot!*" — "*Vive la réforme!*" &c. In these scenes, the boys took the lead, — performing the most desperate feats, and inspiring the rest by their intrepidity. A remarkable air of fun and frolic characterized the mob, — wit flew as freely on all sides as stones and

sticks; every missile seemed winged with a joke.

Such was the course of events the first day, so far as they fell under my own observation. It appears from the papers that similar proceedings, though in some cases of a more serious character, took place elsewhere. Great masses of people gathered at various points. They made hostile demonstrations before the office of *Foreign Affairs*, crying out, "*Down with Guizot!*" Some person called for the minister. "He is not here," said one; "he is with the Countess Lieven," — a remark which the *habitués* of Paris will understand as conveying a keen satire. At other points, a spirit of insubordination was manifested. Bakers' shops were broken open, armories forced, and barricades begun. Everywhere the hymn of the *Marseillaise*, and Dumas' touching death song of the Girondins, were sung — often by hundreds of voices, and with thrilling effect. The *rappel*, for calling out the national guard, was beaten in several arrondissements. As night closed in, heavy masses of soldiery, horse and foot, with trains of artillery, were seen at various points. The *Place du Carrousel* was full of troops, and at evening they were there reviewed

by the king, and the Dukes of Nemours and Montpensier. Six thousand soldiers were disposed along the Boulevards, from the Madeleine to the *Porte St. Martin*. Patrols were seen in different quarters during the whole night. About twelve, tranquillity reigned over the city, disturbed only in a few remote and obscure places, by the building of barricades, the arrest of rioters, and one or two combats, in which several persons were killed. Such was the first day's work—the prelude to the mighty drama about to follow.

Wednesday, the 23d, was fair, with dashes of rain at intervals, as in our April. I was early abroad, and soon noticed that companies of National Guards were on duty. Only regular troops had been called out the day before—a fact which showed the distrust entertained by the king of the National Guards. This was remarked by the latter, and was doubtless one of the causes which hastened the destruction of the government.

At nine o'clock, I passed up the Boulevards. Most of the shops were shut, and an air of uneasiness prevailed among the people. At the *Porte St. Denis*, there was a great throng, and a considerable mass of troops. Barricades were soon after erected in the streets of *St. Denis*, *Clery*, *Rue Saint Eustache*, *Cadran*, &c. Several fusilades took place between the people and soldiers, and a number of persons were killed.

Some contests occurred in other quarters during the morning. At two o'clock, the Boulevards, *Rue St. Denis*, *Rue St. Martin*, *Montmartre*, *Saint Honoré*—in short, all the great thoroughfares,—were literally crammed with people. Bodies of horse and foot, either stationary or patrolling, were everywhere to be seen.

It was about this time that some officers of the National Guards ordered their men to fire, but they refused. In one instance, 400 National Guards were seen marching, in uniform, but without arms. It became evident that the soldiers generally were taking part with the people. This news was carried to the Palace, and Count Molé was called in to form a new ministry. He undertook the task, and orders were immediately given to spread the intelligence of this through the city.

Meanwhile the riot and revel went on in various quarters. The police were active, and hundreds of persons were arrested and lodged in prison. Skirmishes took place between the soldiers and the people; long processions were seen, attended by persons

who sang choruses, and shouted, "Down with Guizot!"—"Long live reform!"

About four o'clock, the news of the downfall of the Guizot ministry was spread along the Boulevards. The joyful intelligence ran over the city with the speed of light. It was everywhere received with acclamations. The people and the troops, a short time before looking at each other in deadly hostility, were seen shaking hands, and expressing congratulations. An immense population,—men, women, and children,—poured into the Boulevards, to share in the jubilation. Large parties of the National Guard paraded the streets, the officers and men shouting, "*Vive la reforme!*" and the crowd cheering loudly. Bands of 500 to 1500 men and boys went about making noisy demonstrations of joy. On being met by the troops, they divided to let them pass, and immediately resumed their cries and their songs.

Towards half-past six o'clock in the evening, an illumination was spoken of, and many persons lighted up spontaneously. The illumination soon became more general, and the populace, in large numbers, went through the streets, calling, "Light up!" Numerous bands, alone or following detachments of the National Guards, went about shouting, "*Vive le roi!*"—"Vive la reforme!" and singing the *Marseillaise*. At many points, where barricades had been erected, and the people were resisting the troops, they ceased when they heard the news of the resignations, and the troops retired. "It is all over!" was the general cry, and a feeling of relief seemed to pervade every bosom.

There can be no doubt that, but for a fatal occurrence which soon after took place, the further progress of the revolt would have been stayed. Many wise people now say, that the revolution was all planned beforehand; they had foreseen and predicted it; and from the beginning of the outbreak, everything tended to this point. The fact is unquestionably otherwise. The "opposition," with their various clubs and societies distributed through all classes in Paris, and holding constant communication with the *ouvriers* or *blousemen*, no doubt stood ready to take advantage of any violence on the part of the government which might justify resistance; but they had not anticipated such a contingency on the present occasion. It is not probable that the Molé ministry, had it been consummated, would have satisfied the people; but the king had yielded; Guizot, the special object of hatred, had

fallen, and it was supposed that further concessions would be made, as concession had been begun. But accident, which often rules the fate of empires and dynasties, now stepped in to govern the course of events, and give them a character which should astonish the world.

In the course of the evening, a large mass of people had collected in the Boulevard, in the region of Guizot's office — the *Hôtel des Affaires Etrangères*. The troops here had unfortunately threatened the people, by rushing at them with fixed bayonets, after the announcement of the resignation of the ministry, and when a good feeling prevailed among all classes. This irritated the mob, and was partly, no doubt, the occasion of the large gathering in this quarter. For some reason, not well explained, a great many troops had also assembled here, and in the vicinity. At ten o'clock, the street from the Madeleine to the Rue de la Paix, was thronged with soldiers and people. There was, however, no riot, and no symptom of disorder.

At this moment, a collection of young men, about sixty in number, came along the Boulevard, on the side opposite to the soldiers and the Foreign Office. It is said that the colonel anticipated some attack, though nothing of the kind was threatened. It appears that the soldiers stood ready to fire, when one of their guns went off,* and wounded the commander's horse in the leg. He mistook this for a shot from the crowd, and gave instant orders to fire. A fusilade immediately followed. Twenty persons fell dead, and forty were wounded. The scene which ensued baffles description. The immense masses dispersed in terror, and carried panic in all directions. The groans of the dying and the screams of the wounded filled the air. Shops and houses around were turned into hospitals. "We are betrayed! we are betrayed!"—"Revenge! revenge!" was the cry of the masses.

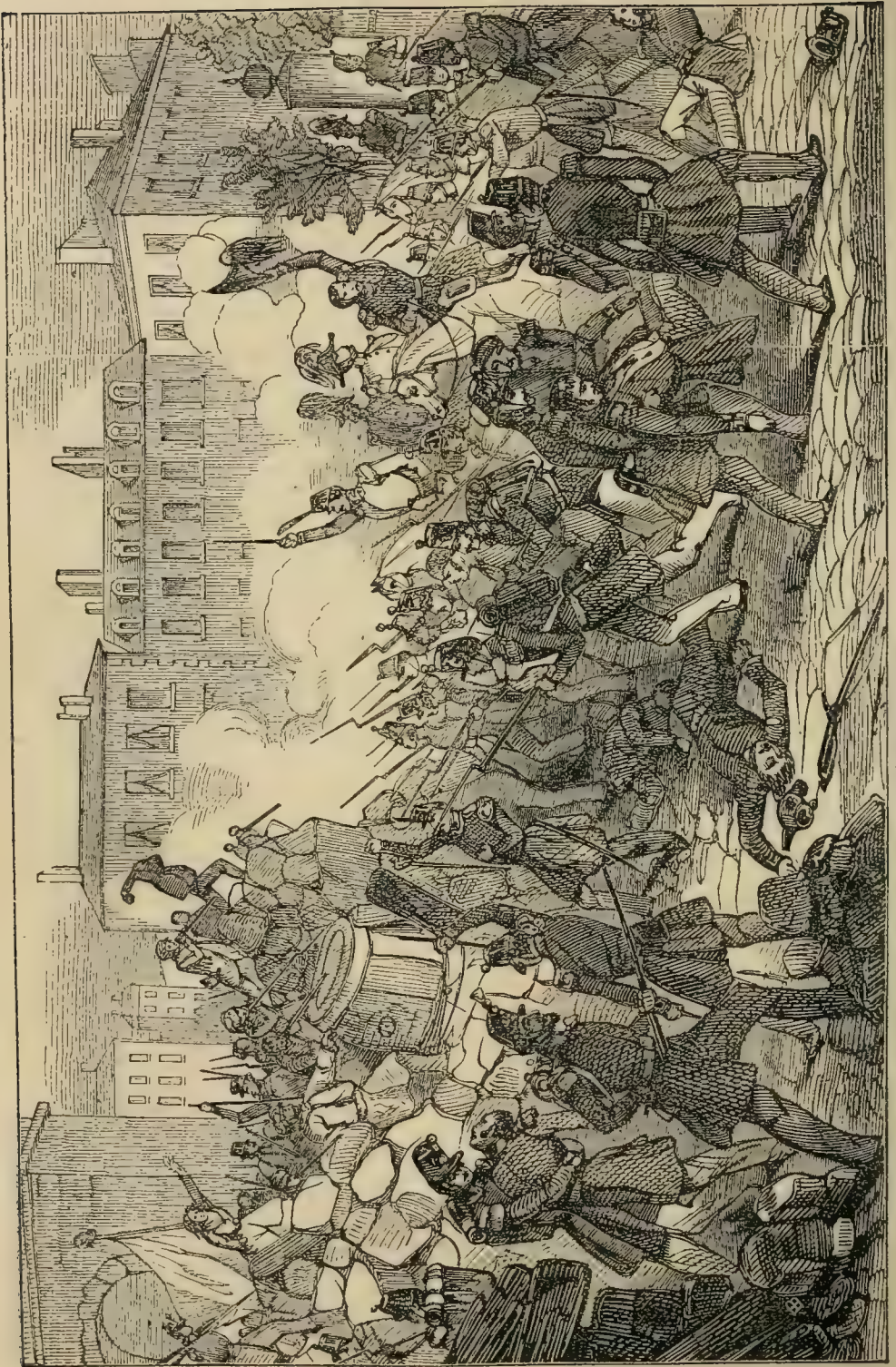
From this moment the doom of the monarchy was sealed. The leaders of the clubs, no doubt, took their measures for revolution. An immense wagon was soon brought to the scene of the massacre; the dead bodies were laid on it, and flaming torches were lighted over it. The ghastly spectacle was paraded through the streets, and the mute lips of the corpses doubtless spoke more effectively than those of the living. Large masses of people, pale with excitement, and

uttering execrations upon the murderers, followed in the train of the wagon, as it passed through the more populous streets of the city, and especially in those quarters inhabited by the lower classes. The effect was such as might have been anticipated. At midnight, the barricades were begun, and at sunrise, the streets of Paris displayed a net-work of fortifications from the place St. George, to the church of Notre Dame, which set the troops at defiance. More than two thousand barricades, some of them ten feet in height, were thrown up during that memorable night; yet such were the suddenness and silence of the operations, that most of the inhabitants of the city slept in security, fondly dreaming that the tempest had passed, and that the morning would greet them in peace.

On Thursday, the decisive day, the weather was still mild and without rain, though the sky was dimmed with clouds. At eleven in the morning, I sallied forth. I cannot express my astonishment at the scene. The whole Boulevard was a spectacle of desolation. From the Rue de la Paix to the Rue Montmartre — the finest part of Paris, the glory of the city — every tree was cut down, all the public monuments reduced to heaps of ruins, the pavements torn up, and the entire wreck tumbled into a succession of barricades. Every street leading into this portion of the Boulevard was strongly barricaded. Such giant operations seemed like the work of enchantment.

But my wonder had only begun. At the point where the Rue Montmartre crosses the Boulevard, the whole pavement was torn up, and something like a square breast-work was formed, in which a cannon was planted. The whole space around was crowded with the populace. As I stood for a moment, surveying the scene, a young man about twenty passed through the crowd, and, stepping upon the carriage of the cannon, cried out, "*Down with Louis Philippe!*" The energy with which this was spoken sent a thrill through every bosom; and the remarkable appearance of the youth gave additional effect to his words. He seemed the very demon of revolution. He was short, broad-shouldered, and full-chested. His face was pale, his cheek spotted with blood, and his head, without hat or cap, was bound with a handkerchief. His features were keen, and his deep-set eye was lit with a spark that seemed borrowed from the tiger. As he left the throng, he came

* It has since been said, and is generally believed, that a revolutionist by the name of *Ligrange* fired this shot with a pistol, having planned and designed the events which immediately followed.



Barricade in Paris.

near me, and I said, inquiringly, "Down with Louis Philippe?" "Yes!" was his reply. "And what then?" said I. "A republic!" was his answer; and he passed on, giving the watchword of "Down with Louis Philippe!" to the masses he encountered. This was the first instance in which I heard the overthrow of the king, and the adoption of a republic, proposed.

In pursuing my walk, I noticed that the population were now abundantly supplied with weapons. On the two first days they were unarmed; but after the slaughter at the Foreign Office, they went to all the houses and demanded weapons. These were given, for refusal would have been vain. An evidence of the consideration of the mob, even in their hour of wrath, is furnished by the fact, that in all cases where the arms had been surrendered, they wrote on the doors in chalk, "*Armes données*," (arms given up) so as to prevent the annoyance of a second call.

It might seem a fearful thing to behold a mob, such as that of Paris, brandishing guns, fowling-pieces, swords, cutlasses, hatchets, and axes; but I must say that I felt not the slightest fear in passing among their thickest masses. Some of them, who had doubtless never handled arms before, seemed a little jaunty and jubilant. The *Gamins*, a peculiar race of enterprising, daring, desperate boys—the leaders in riots, rows, and rebellions—were swarming on all sides, and seemed to feel a head taller in the possession of their weapons. I saw several of these unwashed imps strutting about with red sashes around the waist, supporting pistols, dirks, cutlasses, &c. Yet I must state, that over the whole scene there was an air of good breeding, which seemed a guaranty against insult or violence. I may as well say here, that during the whole three days, I did not observe a scuffle or wrangle among the people; I did not hear an insulting word, nor did I see a menace offered—save in conflicts between the soldiers and the populace. I may add, that I did not see a drunken person during the whole period, with the single exception which I shall hereafter mention.

I took a wide circuit in the region of the Rue Montmartre, the Bourse, the Rue Vivienne, St. Honoré, and the Palais Royal. Everywhere there were enormous barricades and crowds of armed people. Soon after I passed, that is, about twelve o'clock, the southern quadrangle of the Palais Royal, which had lately been the residence of the brother of the King of Naples, was attacked

and taken by the populace. The beautiful suite of rooms were richly furnished, and decorated with costly pictures, statues, bronzes, and other specimens of art. These were unsparingly tumbled into the square and the street, and consigned to the flames.* At the distance of 150 feet from the front of the Palais Royal, is the *Château d'Eau*, a massive stone building, occupied at the time as a barrack, and at this moment garrisoned by 180 municipal guards. In most parts of the city, seeing that the troops fraternized with the people, the government had given them orders not to fire. These guards, however, attacked the insurgents in and about the Palais Royal. Their fire was returned, and a desperate conflict ensued. The battle lasted for more than an hour, the people rushing in the very face of the muskets of the guard, as they blazed from the grated windows. At last the barrack was set on fire, and the guard yielded, though not till many of their number had fallen, and the rest were nearly dead with suffocation. The *Château d'Eau* is now a mere ruin, its mottled walls giving evidence of the shower of bullets that had been poured upon it.

No sooner had the *Château d'Eau* surrendered, than the flushed victors took their course toward the Tuileries, which was near at hand; shouting, singing, roaring, they came like a surge, bearing all before them. The Place du Carrousel was filled with troops, but not a sword was unsheathed—not a bayonet pointed—not a musket or a cannon fired. There stood, idle and motionless, the mighty armament which the king had appointed for his defence. How vain had his calculations proved! for, alas! they were founded in a radical error! The soldiers would not massacre their brethren, to sustain a worthless thing—though it bore the title of a *crown*! How pregnant is this fact, as to the future fate of monarchies!

But we must now enter the Tuileries. For several days previous to the events we have described, some anxiety had been entertained by persons in and about the palace. The king, however, had no fears. He appeared in unusual spirits, and if any intimation of danger was given, he turned

* Many occurrences, during the revolution, served to display, on the part of the people, commonly, but injuriously, called the *mob*, sentiments not inferior in beauty and elevation to those handed down for centuries in the histories of ancient Greece and Rome. During the sacking of the Palais Royal, the insurgents found an ivory crucifix. In the very heat of their fury against tyranny, they reverently paused, and, taking the sacred emblem of their faith, bore it to the old Church of St. Roch, where it was safely deposited.

it aside with a sneer or a joke. Even so late as Wednesday, after he had called upon Count Molé to form a new ministry, he remarked, that he was so *firmly seated in the saddle, that nothing could throw him off.*

Molé soon found it impossible, with the materials at hand, to construct a ministry. Thiers was then called in, and after a long course of higgling and chaffering on the part of the king, it was agreed that he and Barrot should undertake to carry on the government. This was announced by them in person, as they rode through the streets on Thursday morning. These concessions, however, came too late. The cry for a republic was bursting from the lips of the million. The abdication of the king was decreed, and a raging multitude were demanding this at the very gates of the palace. Overborne by the crisis, the king agreed to abdicate in favor of the Duke de Nemours. Some better tidings were brought him, and he retracted what he had just done. A moment after, it became certain that the insurgents would shortly burst into the palace. In great trepidation, the king agreed to resign the crown in favor of his grandson, the young Count de Paris — yet, still clinging to hope, he shuffled and hesitated before he would put his name to the act of abdication. This, however, was at last done, and the king and queen, escorted by a small body of horse, walked down the central avenue of the Tuileries, passed through the western gate, and, entering a small one-horse vehicle, began their flight.

Meanwhile, the mob had seized the royal carriages, fourteen in number, and made a bonfire of them, near the celebrated arch in the Place du Carrousel. Soon after, they forced the railing at several points, and came rushing across the square toward the palace. Scarcely had the various members of the royal family time to escape on one side of the building, when the mob broke in at the other.

I have not time to follow the adventures of these several individuals. We cannot but sympathize with them in their misfortunes; but we may remark, that the fall of the Orleans dynasty was not broken by a single act of courage or dignity on the part of any one of the family. Their flight seemed a vulgar scramble for mere life. Even the king was reduced to the most common-place disguises — the shaving of his whiskers, the change of his dress, the adopting an "alias!" I may add here, that they have all escaped; and while everybody seems glad of this, there is no one

behind who mourns their loss. None are more loud in denouncing the besotted confidence of the king, than his 225 purchased deputies, who were so loyal in the days of prosperity.

We must now turn our attention towards another scene — the Chamber of Deputies. This body met at the usual hour on Tuesday, at twelve o'clock. While the riotous scenes we have described were taking place during that day, in full view of the place where they had assembled, the deputies, as if in mockery of the agitation without, were occupied in a languid discussion upon the affairs of a broken country bank. Toward the close of the sitting, Odillon Barrot read from the tribune a solemn act of impeachment of the ministers. The next day (Wednesday) the Chamber again met, and Guizot in the afternoon announced that Count Molé was attempting to form a new ministry. It does not appear that Guizot or his colleagues were afterwards seen in the Chamber. It is said that they met at the house of Duchatel on Thursday morning, and after consultation, adopted the significant motto of Napoleon after the battle of Waterloo, — "*Sauve qui peut!*" — (Save himself who can.) I am happy to add that the fugitives seem to have made good their escape. It is said that Soult, disdaining to fly, remains at his house. I need not say that he will not be molested, for there is no sanguinary feeling toward any one, and Napoleon's old favorite, the victor in so many battles, would more readily find a Parisian populace to protect than injure him.

The moment after the king and queen had passed the *Place de la Concorde*, I chanced to be there. In a few moments Odillon Barrot appeared from the gate of the Tuileries, and, followed by a long train of persons, proceeded to the Chamber of Deputies. It was now understood that the king had abdicated, and that Thiers and Barrot were to propose the Count de Paris as king, under the regency of his mother, the Duchess of Orleans. The most profound emotion seemed to occupy the immense multitude. All were hushed into silence by the rapid succession of astonishing events. After a short space, the Duchess of Orleans, with her two sons, the Count de Paris and the Duc de Chartres were seen on foot coming toward the Chamber, encircled by a strong escort. She was dressed in deep mourning, her face bent to the ground. She moved across the bridge, and passing to the rear of the building,

entered it through the gardens. Shortly after this, the Duc de Nemours, attended by several gentlemen on horseback, rode up, and also entered the building.

The scene that ensued within, is said to have presented an extraordinary mixture of the solemn and the ludicrous. The duchess being present, O. Barrot proceeded to state the abdication of the king, and to propose the regency. It was then that Lamartine seemed to shake off the poet and philosopher, and suddenly to become a man of action. Seizing the critical moment, he declared his conviction that the days of monarchy were numbered, that the proposed regency was not suited to the crisis, and that a republic alone would meet the emergency and the wishes of France. These opinions, happily expressed and strenuously enforced, became decisive in their effect.

Several other speeches were made, and a scene of great confusion followed. A considerable number of the mob had broken into the room, and occupied the galleries and the floor. One of them brought his firelock to his shoulder, and took aim at M. Sauzet, the president. Entirely losing his self-possession, he abdicated with great speed, and disappeared. In the midst of the hubbub, a provisional government was announced, and the leading members named. Some of the more obnoxious deputies were aimed at by the mob, and skulking ingloriously behind benches and pillars, oozed out at back-doors and windows. A blouseman came up to the Duke of Nemours, who drew his sword. The *ouvrier* took it from him, broke it over his knee, and counselled his highness to depart. This he did forthwith, having borrowed a coat and hat for the purpose of disguise. A call was made for the members of the provisional government to proceed to the Hotel de Ville. The assembly broke up. The last sitting of the Chamber of Deputies was closed!

It was about three o'clock in the afternoon, that I retraced my steps towards the Tuileries. The *Place de la Concorde* was crowded with soldiers, and fifty cannon were ranged in front of the gardens. Yet this mighty force seemed struck with paralysis. Long lines of infantry stood mute and motionless, and heavy masses of cavalry seemed converted into so many statues. Immediately before the eyes of these soldiers was the palace of the Tuileries in full possession of the mob, but not a muscle moved for their expulsion.

Passing into the gardens, I perceived that thousands of persons were spread over their

surface, and a rattling discharge of fire-arms was heard on all sides. Looking about for the cause of this, I perceived that hundreds of men and boys were amusing themselves with shooting sparrows and pigeons, which had hitherto found a secure resting-place in this favorite resort of leisure and luxury. Others were discharging their muskets for the mere fun of making a noise. Proceeding through the gardens, I came at last to the palace. It had now been, for more than an hour, in full possession of the insurgents. All description fails to depict a scene like this. The whole front of the Tuileries, one eighth of a mile in length, seemed gushing at doors, windows, balconies, and galleries, with living multitudes—a mighty bee-hive of men, in the very act of swarming. A confused hubbub filled the air, and bewildered the senses with its chaotic sounds.

At the moment I arrived, the throne of the king was borne away by a jubilant band of revellers; and after being paraded through the streets, was burned at the *Place de la Bastille*—a significant episode in this tale of wonders. The colossal statue of Spartacus, which faces the main door of the palace, toward the gardens, was now decorated with a piece of gilt cloth, torn from the throne, and wreathed like a turban around his head. In his hand was a gorgeous bouquet of artificial flowers. It seemed as if the frowning gladiator had suddenly caught the spirit of the revel, and was about to descend from his pedestal and mingle in the masquerade.

I entered the palace, and passed through the long suits of apartments devoted to occasions of ceremony. A year before, I had seen these gorgeous halls filled with the great and the fair, the favored and the noble, gathered to this focal point of luxury, refinement, and taste, from every quarter of the world. How little did Louis Philippe, at that moment, dream of "coming events!" How little did the stately queen—a proud obelisk of silk, and lace, and diamonds—foresee the change that was at hand! I recollected well the effect of this scene upon my own mind, and felt the full force of the contrast which the present moment presented. In the very room, where I had seen the pensive and pensile Princess de Joinville and the Duchess of Montpensier,—then fresh from the hymeneal altar—her raven hair studded with diamonds like evening stars—whirling in the mazy dance—I now beheld a band of creatures like Calibans, gambolling to the song of the Marseillaise!

On every side my eye fell upon scenes of destruction. Passing to the other end of the palace, I beheld a mob in the chambers of the princesses. Some rolled themselves in the luscious beds,—others anointed their heads with choice pomade—exclaiming, "Dieu—how sweet it smells!" One of the *Gamins*, grimmed with gunpowder, blood, and dirt, seized a tooth-brush, and placing himself before a mirror, seemed delighted at the manifest improvement which he produced upon his ivory.

In leaving the palace, I saw numbers of the men drinking wine from bottles found in the cellars. None of them were positively drunk. To use the words of Tam O'Shanter, "*They were na fou, but just had plenty*,"—perhaps a little more. They flourished their guns and pistols, brandished their swords, and performed various antics,—but they offered no insult to any one. They seemed in excellent humor, and made more than an ordinary display of French politesse. They complimented the women, of whom there was no lack—and one of them, seeming like a figure of Pan, seized a maiden by the waist, and both rigadoned merrily over the floor.

Leaving this scene of waste, confusion, and uproar, I proceeded toward the gate of the gardens leading into the Rue Rivoli. I was surprised to find here a couple of ruthless-looking *blousemen*, armed with pistols, keeping guard. On inquiry, I found that the mob themselves had instituted a sort of government. One fellow, in the midst of the devastation in the palace, seeing a man put something into his pocket, wrote on the wall, "*Death to the thief!*" The Draconian code was immediately adopted by the people, and became the law of Paris. Five persons, taken in acts of robbery, were shot down by the people, and their bodies exposed in the streets, with the label of "*Thieves*" on their breast. Thus order and law seemed to spring up from the instincts of society, in the midst of uproar and confusion, as crystals are seen shooting from the chaos of the elements.

Three days had now passed, and the revolution was accomplished. The people soon returned to their wonted habits—the provisional government proceeded in its duties—the barricades disappeared, and in a single week the more obtrusive traces of the storm that had passed, had vanished from the streets and squares of Paris. A mighty shock has, however, been given to society, which still swells and undulates like the sea after a storm. The adjacent

countries seem to feel the movement, and all Europe is in a state of agitation. What must be the final result cannot now be foreseen—but I fear that, ere the sky be cleared, still further tempests must sweep over France, as well as other nations. The day for reckoning for long years of tyranny and corruption has come, and the sun of liberty can hardly be expected to shine full on the scene, till a night of fear, and agitation, and tears has been endured.

The events which have followed, have been of the most astonishing character. For several weeks and months, Paris was a scene of extraordinary excitement. The Provisional Government had announced that they would provide the people with labor. Consequently, deputations of tailors, hatters, wood engravers, musicians, paviors, cabinet makers, seamstresses, and a multitude of other trades and vocations, flocked in long lines to the Hotel de Ville, to solicit the favor of the government. Vast crowds of people haunted this place, and, in one instance, thousands came thundering at the doors, demanding that the blood-red flag of the former revolution should be the banner of the new republic. The members of the government were so besieged, and pressed by business, that for several weeks they slept in the Hotel de Ville. They proceeded with a bold hand to announce and establish the republic. In order to make a favorable impression upon the people, they had a gorgeous celebration at the foot of the column of July, (Sunday, Feb. 27,) by which they solemnly inaugurated the new Republic. All the members of the Provisional Government were present on horseback; there were 60,000 troops and 200,000 people to witness the ceremony!

Another still more imposing spectacle took place March 4. This was called the *Funeral of the Victims*. After funeral ceremonies at the Madeleine, the government, a long train of public officers, and an immense cortege of military, proceeded to the July column, conducting a funeral car, drawn by eight cream-colored horses. This car was superb, and contained many of the bodies of those slain in the revolution,—about 250. These were deposited in the vault of the column, with the victims of the revolution of 1830.

Nothing can correctly portray this spectacle. A tricolored flag was stretched on each side of the Boulevard, from the Madeleine to the July column—a distance of three miles. As this consisted of three strips of cloth, the whole length of them was

eighteen miles. The solemn movement of the funeral procession, the dirge-like music, the march of nearly a hundred thousand soldiers, and the sympathizing presence of three hundred thousand souls, rendered it a scene, never surpassed and rarely equalled, either by the magnificence of the panorama, or the solemn and touching sentimentality excited.

Still other spectacles succeeded, and in the summer, 400,000 people assembled in the Champs Elysées, to witness the *Presentation of Flags* to the assembled national guards—80,000 being present. Such scenes can only be witnessed in Paris.

Events proceeded with strange rapidity. An assembly was called by the provisional government, to form a constitution. The members were elected by ballot, the suffrage being universal—that is, open to all Frenchmen over twenty-one. The election took place in April, and on the 4th of May, the first session took place, being ceremonially announced to thousands of the people from the steps of the Chamber of Deputies. On the 15th May, a conspiracy was disclosed, the leaders of which were Raspail, Barbes, Sobrier, Caussidière,* Blanqui, Flotte, Albert, Louis Blanc—the two last having been members of the provisional government. Caussidière was prefect of police.

The Assembly proceeded in the work of framing a constitution, meantime administering the government. On the 24th June, a terrific insurrection broke out, promoted by the leaders of various factions, all desiring the overthrow of the republic. Cavaignac, who was minister of war, was appointed dictator, and Paris was declared in a state of siege. The insurgents confined their operations chiefly to the faubourgs St. Jacques and St. Antoine. They got possession of these, and formed skilful and able plans of operation, which had for ultimate object the surrounding of the city and getting possession of certain important parts, including the Chamber—thus securing the government.

Cavaignac proceeded to attack the barricades, thus clearing the streets one by one. The fighting was terrible. For four days the battle continued, the sound of cannon frequently filling the ears of the people all over the city. Night and day the in-

habitants were shut up in their houses—ignorant of all, save that the conflict was raging. The women found employment in scraping lint for the wounded. All Paris was a camp. The windows were closed; the soldiers and sentinels passed their watchwords; litters, carrying the dead and wounded, were seen along the streets; the tramp of marching column and the thunder of rushing cavalry broke upon the ear!

At last the conflict was over: the insurgents were beaten; Cavaignac triumphed. But the victory was purchased with blood. Between two and three thousand persons were killed—and among them, no less than seven general officers fell. The insurgents fought like tigers. Many women were in the ranks, using the musket, carrying the banners, rearing barricades, and cheering the fight. Boys and girls mingled in the conflict. The national guards had equal courage, and superior discipline. One of the Garde Mobile—*Hyacinthe Martin*—a youth of fourteen, took four standards from the tops of the barricades. His gallantry excited great interest, and Cavaignac decorated him with the cross of the Legion of Honor. He became a hero of the day, and, sad to relate, being invited to fêtes, banquets, and repasts, his head was turned and he was soon a ruined profligate.

The leaders in this terrific insurrection have never been detected. It is certain that the movement was headed by able men, and directed by skilful engineers. The masses who fought were roused to fury by poverty and distress, by disappointment at finding the national workshops discontinued, and by the proceedings of the socialist clubs and newspapers. It is computed that 40,000 insurgents were in arms, and 80,000 government soldiers were brought against them. It may be considered that this struggle was the remote but inevitable result of the measure of the provisional government in adopting the doctrine of obligation, on the part of the state, to supply work and wages, and in establishing national workshops in pursuance of this idea. Still, it may be said, that nothing but such a step could have enabled the provisional government to maintain itself, during three months, and give being to an organized assembly from which a legitimate government could proceed.

The constitution was finished in the autumn, and promulgated the 19th of Nov., 1848. On the 10th of Dec. following, the election of president took place, and it appeared that Louis Napoleon had about five million out of seven million votes. He was

* These men were Socialists, and aimed at a destruction of government, so that they might bring into effect their peculiar schemes. They have been lately tried at Bourges, and sentenced to long imprisonment or banishment. Louis Blanc and Caussidière escaped to England.

duly inaugurated, very quietly, in about a week after the election. He has since performed the duties of his office, and is now (June, 1849) very popular. The election for

the first legislative assembly, under the constitution, took place 13th May, and passed off quietly.

In connection with the recent revolution



Hyacinthe Martin, meeting his father, and receiving the congratulations of the people.

in France, it is curious to read the following passage, published many years ago.

"Before fifty years," said Napoleon to Las Casas, one day, at St. Helena, "Europe will be Republican or Cossack."

"Then, if my son is alive, he will be called to the French throne, amidst the acclamations of the people. If he is dead, France will become a republic again; no hand would dare to grasp a sceptre which it could not wield."

"The branch of Orleans, though agreeable, is too weak; it clings too much to the other Bourbons, and it will have the same fate, if it does not prefer living as simple citizens, whatever changes arrive."

"Once again France will be a republic, and other countries will follow her example. Germans, Prussians, Poles, Italians, Danes, Swedes, and Russians, will join her in a crusade in favor of liberty. They will arm

against their sovereigns, who will hasten to make them concessions, in order to retain a part of their ancient authority; they will call themselves constitutional kings, possessing limited powers. Thus the feudal system will receive its death-blow: like the ocean mist, it will vanish before the first ray of the sun of liberty."

"But things will not rest there. The wheel of revolution will not stop at that point—its impetuosity will increase five fold, and its rapidity in proportion. When a nation recovers part of its rights, it becomes enthusiastic from victory, and, having tasted the sweets of liberty, becomes more enterprising in order to obtain more. The states of Europe will be, perhaps, for some years, in a continual state of agitation, like the ground the moment before an earthquake; but at last the lava breaks forth, and an explosion ends all."

"The bankruptcy of England will be the lava which will shake the world, devour kings and aristocracies, but cement by its outbreak the interests of democracy. Believe me, Las Casas, as the vines planted in the ashes which cover the feet of Etna and Vesuvius produce the most delicious wines, so the tree of liberty will become immova-

ble when it has its roots in the revolutionary lava which will overflow all the monarchies. May it flourish forever! These sentiments may perhaps appear strange to you, but they are mine.

"I was born a republican; but destiny and the opposition of Europe made me an emperor."



The Archbishop of Paris addressing the people, before he was killed.

In the revolution of February, and during the insurrection of June, which we have just described, many touching incidents occurred. But one of the most melancholy events of the insurrection, was the death of the Archbishop of Paris. He was shot from a window, as he had mounted a barricade to address the insurgents and attempt to allay their fury. This occurred at the corner of the Place de la Bastille.

The effects of the agitations in France were of course extended to other parts of Europe; what will be the final issue, time alone can determine. But it is clear that monarchical government has failed to satisfy the wishes and expectations of mankind, and they are not likely to rest till it has given place to some other system.



THE PRESIDENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

CHARLES LOUIS NAPOLEON, son of Louis, Ex-King of Holland, was born in Paris on the 20th of April, 1808. His god-parents were the Emperor and Maria Louisa, and during his childhood he was an especial favorite of the former. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, he stood beside him on the Champ de Mars, and when embraced by him for the last time, at Malmaison, the young Louis, then a boy of seven years, wished to follow him at all hazards. When the family was banished from France, his mother removed to Augsburg, where he received a good German education. He was afterwards taken to Switzerland, where he obtained the right of citizenship, and commenced a course of military studies. After the July revolution, by which he was a second time proscribed from France, he visited Italy in company with his brother, and in 1831 took part in a popular insurrection

against the pope. This movement failed, but he succeeded in making his escape, and, his brother dying at Forli the same year, he visited England and afterwards returned to Switzerland, where, for two or three years, he contented himself with writing political and military works, which do not appear to have been extensively read. The death of the Duke of Reichstadt in 1832, gave a new impulse to his ambitious hopes. His first revolutionary attempt, at Strasbourg, in October, 1836, completely failed, but after a short imprisonment in Paris, he was sent to this country. The illness of his mother occasioned his return the following year, and after a visit to Switzerland he took up his residence in England until his second attempt at Boulogne, in 1840.

In this affair several of his followers were killed, and he was himself taken and sentenced to imprisonment for life in the Castle

of Ham. The particulars of his escape in May, 1846, after an incarceration of six years, are well known. From that time until the end of September, 1848, when he was returned as a deputy to the National Assembly from the department of the Seine, he resided in England.

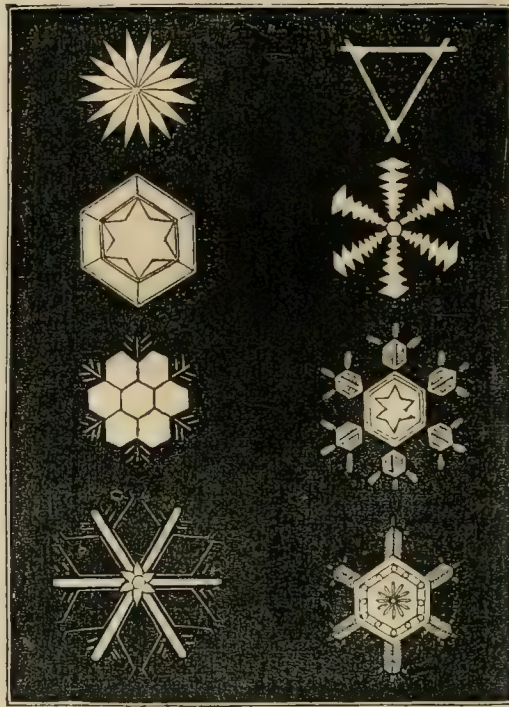
The large majority by which he was elected a representative astonished every one, and gave his followers the first encouragement to bring forth his name as a candidate for the presidency. To defeat the acknowledged republican party, he received also the support of the legitimists and the Orleanists, and those combined influences have elected him by an immense majority.

Thousands voted for him also, believing that the only chance offered for a stable government, would arise from electing somebody by the people, and by a decisive majority. It was rationally feared that if no candidate had two million votes — in which case the Assembly would elect a president — that Cavaignac would be chosen; and not supported by the popular voice, the government could not stand. Besides all this, millions of the people were poor, and they hoped better times from a Bonaparte. The feelings of a large body of the people may be inferred from the fact, that in less than a month after his election, the new president had 50,000 begging letters; of these, 5000 contained scrip of the government Pawning Establishment—the *Mont de Piété*—showing pledges of beds, blankets, and other articles of first-rate necessity, and begging Napoleon to redeem them. Hope, springing from the bosom of poverty, wretchedness, and despair, was a large element that entered into the election. In France, as has often happened in the U. States, the election was attended with amusing incidents. "The peasantry of the interior," we are told by a certain writer, "marched to the polls with their Napoleon ticket at the end of cleft sticks, and drums beating; in many districts, when asked about their choice, they answered, 'We do not mean to vote for a republican; we have had enough of the republic.' 'Well, then,' they were told, 'if you do not want the republic, vote for Bonaparte.' Yesterday, I asked the worthy tailor whom I have employed for many years, and who is an officer in the National Guards, how he voted. 'For Napoleon, to be sure.' When he perceived that I was not edified, he added, — 'Possibly it was stupid on my part; but, in truth, I could no longer bear with this cursed republic.' Such was the feeling of the *bourgeois* in general!"

L'Elysée National, formerly L'Elysée Bourbon, which the National Assembly has appropriated and fitted up for the residence of the President of the French Republic, was known, at the beginning of the last century, under the name of Chateau d'Evreux. It was built in 1718 by Count d'Evreux, Lieutenant-General, governor of the Royal Chateau of Monceaux. Madame de Pompadour, the mistress of Louis XV., bought it from the family d'Evreux, and kept it to her death, in 1764. After her death, it passed into the hands of Mr. Beaujon, a capitalist, who sold it, in 1781, to King Louis XVI. Having become national property after the revolution, it remained uninhabited under the republic. Under the empire, Murat, King of Naples, purchased it; and at the time of the second restoration, the state took possession of it, without any regard for the rights of the heirs of Murat. In 1830, a decree appropriated the Elysée to Queen Amelie, in case she should survive the ex-King Louis Philippe. The Elysée is the last palace which Napoleon inhabited before his departure for exile, in 1815. He stopped at the Elysée on the 21st of June, after the defeat of Waterloo; and abdicated there, in favor of the King of Rome, and resigned the supreme power to avoid foreign invasion and civil war.

Up to the present moment the palace has been one of the "lions of Paris," and a sort of show-place to strangers. It is entered from the Rue du Faubourg St. Honore by a spacious quadrangular court-yard. After ascending a lofty flight of steps the visitor is conducted to the suite of apartments on the first story. They include the bed-chamber occupied by Napoleon during the hundred days, and the council-room in which the Emperor Alexander transacted business during the occupation of Paris by the allied armies in the spring of 1814. These rooms are furnished with some splendor, and are adorned with several fine paintings. The garden, at the rear of the palace, extends as far as the Champs Elysées.

Louis Napoleon is below the middle size, and in stature nearly the same as the emperor. His features bear no resemblance to the imperial model, being more regular and more handsome, if not more expressive. His figure is youthful, but his visage is admirably lined, and marked somewhat with years. In short, his face bears a greater, and his figure a less age than that given by the almanac. His manners are extremely engaging, and marked with much dignity and grace, without the slightest approach to assumption.



SNOW CRYSTALS.

Snow, examined with the aid of a microscope, exhibits structures of exquisite beauty, regularity, and endless variety, though it sometimes presents no peculiarity of form, but falls in very minute globular particles. Commonly a snow-flake consists of a series of crystals formed independently in the upper regions of the air. These are united in groups while descending through the atmosphere, by its agitations striking them against each other. The flickering and gradual descent of the flakes is owing to their great extent of surface in comparison with their volume.

A number of brilliant icy spiculæ, or points diverging from a common centre, resembling stars having so many rays, apparently wrought with the nicest art, is the usual form of the crystals, which are for the most part hexagonal, presenting a nucleus of six divergences. This stelliform shape is the ordinary appearance of snow, but the detail varies, as in the adjoining illustration. Dr. E. J. Clarke, speaking of the breaking up of the winter season at St. Petersburg, remarks:—"Snow, in the most regular and beautiful crystals, fell gently on our clothes, and on the sledge, as we were driving through the streets; all of them possessed exactly the same figure, and the same

dimensions. Every particle consisted of a wheel or star, with six equal rays, bounded by circumferences of equal diameters; they had all of them the same number of rays branching from a common centre. The size of each of these little stars was equal to the circle presented by dividing a pea into two equal parts. This appearance continued during three hours, in which time no other snow fell, and there was sufficient leisure to examine them with the strictest attention."

A microscope applied to a flake of snow, will unfold its mode of structure as well as their variations in our climate; but it is in the polar regions that snow assumes its most beautiful and varied forms. Scoresby has figured ninety-six varieties, distributed into classes of lamellar, spicular, and pyramidal crystals, from which the annexed representation is taken. Upon examining some snow which fell at Yverdon, in Switzerland, in 1829 and 1830, Mr. Thuber Burnaud found its crystals to consist of stellar plates with six rays, along each of which filaments were disposed after the form of feathers, and these also had finer filaments similarly arranged. He observed that in the former year almost every day the crystals presented a new variety of shape, sometimes resembling parallel fillets, cones, and spines, with a rosette termination.



KNOWLEDGE OF THE INFERIOR ANIMALS.

THE knowledge of the arts and sciences, which is possessed by the different members of the animal creation, has not unfrequently been a subject of wonder to the naturalist. We may examine the subject with profit to ourselves.

The Mole is a meteorologist, for he keeps a careful account of the weather.

Bees are geometricians. Their cells are so constructed, as, with the least quantity of material, to have the largest sized spaces and least possible loss of interstice.

So also is the Ant-Lion. His funnel-shaped trap is exactly correct in its confor-

mation, as if it had been formed by the most skilful artist of our species, with the aid of the best instruments.

The bird called the Kine-Killer is an arithmetician; so also are Crows, the Wild Turkey, and some other birds.

The Torpedo, the Ray, and the Electric Eel, are electricians.

The Nautilus is a navigator. He raises and lowers his sail, and casts and weighs anchor, and performs other nautical evolutions.

The Beaver is an architect, builder, and wood-cutter.



The Marmot is a civil engineer. He not only builds houses, but constructs aqueducts and drains to keep them dry.

The White Ants maintain a regular army of soldiers.

The East India Ants are horticulturists; they grow mushrooms, upon which they feed their young.

Wasps are paper manufacturers. Caterpillars are silk spinners.

The bird *Ploceus Textor* is a weaver. He weaves a web to build his nest.

The *Primia* is a tailor. He sews the leaves together to make his nest.

The Squirrel is a ferryman. With a

chip or a piece of bark for a boat, and his tail for a sail, he crosses the stream.

Dogs, Wolves, Jackals, and many others, are hunters.



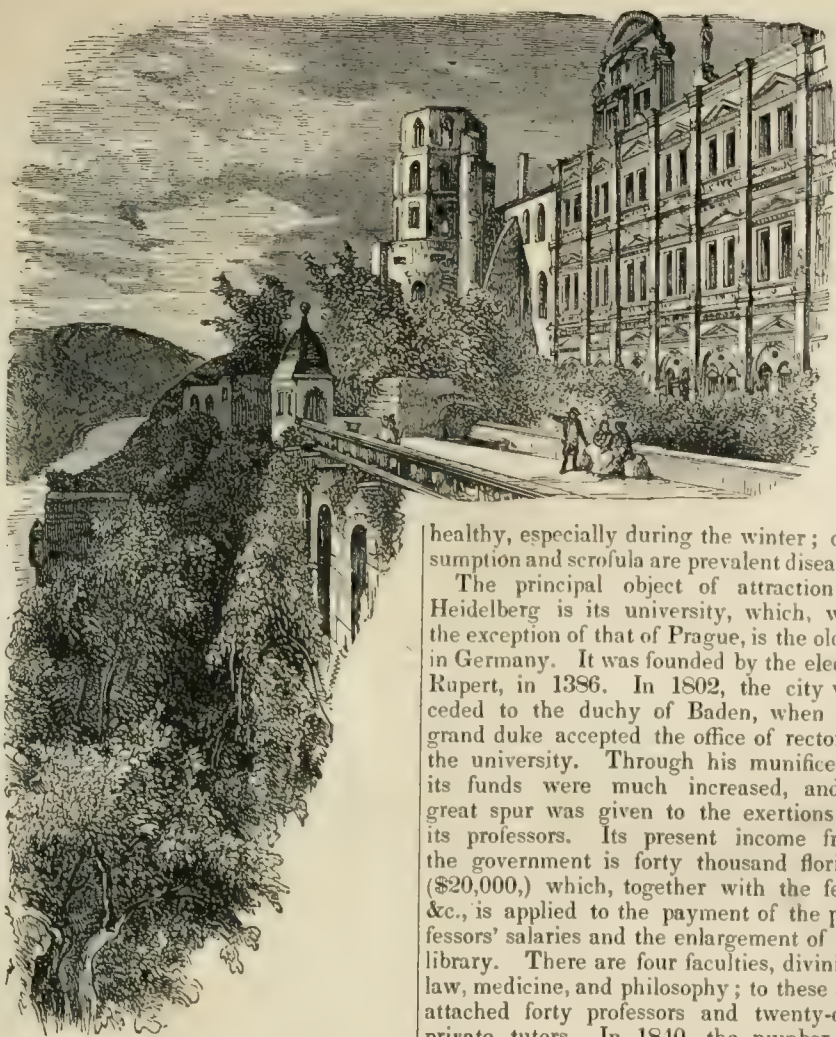
Mount Sinai.

MOUNTAINS.

MOUNTAINS, in their exterior form, exhibit some varieties which strike the most inattentive observer. The highest mountains most frequently present a surface of naked rock. In some places they shoot up in the form of enormous crystals with sharp angles. Sometimes there appears an immense steep and abrupt surface, which seems to lay open to view the bowels of the mountain itself. There are other mountains, the tops of which present circular outlines, which give them an air of tranquillity. The mountains of New England and the Apalachian chain, are generally of this character. Some mountains rise in regular and majestic gradations, like a vast amphitheatre; others present a large mass cut perpendicularly in the form of an altar, like the Table Mountain at the Cape of Good Hope. There are mountains in China which resemble the heads of tigers, dragons and bears. In other places there are labyrinths of rocks, which rise in the form of pillars. In France there is a large mountain in a single mass, in the form of a large nine-pin; then there are others, which are described as resembling the old-fashioned frizzled wigs. In short, the varieties in the form of mountains, as described by travellers, seem to be almost infinite.

The utility of mountains is very great. They attract the clouds and vapors, which become condensed by cold, and fall in the shape of snow and rain, thus giving birth to innumerable streams, which descend and spread fertility and beauty over the face of the earth. Some of them are highly picturesque and beautiful, and fill the mind of the beholder only with pleasing emotions. Others are lofty, rugged and sublime, and awaken feelings of awe and astonishment. The loftiest range of mountains in the world is the American range, which reaches 11,000 miles. The Ural range, the largest in Europe, extends only 1500 miles.

Volcanoes are those mountains which vomit forth flames and smoke and melted matter. The chimney, through which the smoke and lava issue, terminates in a vast cavity called the crater. The number of volcanoes that have been discovered amounts to several hundred; some of them are now extinguished, others are only periodically inflamed, while others still are in constant activity. The most celebrated in the world are Mts. Etna, Hecla, Cotopaxi, and Vesuvius. Earthquakes are supposed to be intimately connected with volcanoes, and usually take place in volcanic countries.



HEIDELBERG.

HEIDELBERG is a city of southern Germany, in the duchy of Baden, about twelve miles from the Rhine. It is picturesquely situated, and overlooked by well-wooded hills, while the rising ground in front is covered with rich vineyards. The streets are narrow and gloomy, and the public buildings have no pretensions to grandeur. The town has no trade of any importance, but some expectations are entertained of its prosperity in this respect being improved, in consequence of the railway just opened between it and Mannheim. It is a cheap place of residence, in consequence of the low price of provisions and the moderate house-rent charges. The climate is not

healthy, especially during the winter; consumption and scrofula are prevalent diseases.

The principal object of attraction in Heidelberg is its university, which, with the exception of that of Prague, is the oldest in Germany. It was founded by the elector Rupert, in 1386. In 1802, the city was ceded to the duchy of Baden, when the grand duke accepted the office of rector to the university. Through his munificence its funds were much increased, and a great spur was given to the exertions of its professors. Its present income from the government is forty thousand florins, (\$20,000,) which, together with the fees, &c., is applied to the payment of the professors' salaries and the enlargement of the library. There are four faculties, divinity, law, medicine, and philosophy; to these are attached forty professors and twenty-one private tutors. In 1840, the number of students was six hundred and twenty-two.

It is to be regretted that the usefulness of this university has been much lessened by the impetuosity of the students in mingling in the disturbances in Frankfurt, in 1833; the number of students has fallen off nearly one half, in consequence of several German princes having forbidden their subjects to resort thither. The riotous conduct of the Heidelberg students is chiefly owing to the system of students' clubs, which excite here greater animosity and more frequent disturbances than at any other German university.

The well known Schloss, or electoral palace, stands on the south side of the town, and its ruins present a most imposing aspect. This castle was partly burnt by the French in 1693, and was struck by lightning in

1764, since which time it has been wholly uninhabited. It is now worthless, and presents a mass of red sandstone walls, perforated with windows. In one of the cellars of this palace is the famous Heidelberg tun, now empty, but which is said to be capable of holding eight hundred hogsheads.

The date of the foundation of Heidelberg is not known, but it ranked only as a small town in 1225. The latter part of the fourteenth century seems to have been its era of prosperity; for it then displayed, in its

handsome buildings, all the splendor arising from a flourishing trade, and the residence of the court of the elector's palatine of the Rhine. From that time till the peace of Amiens, in 1802, the city suffered a variety of reverses, was several times burned, sacked, and ravaged. These repeated calamities, and the removal of the elector's residence to Mannheim, in 1719, contributed to diminish its importance among the towns of Germany; and it has never since recovered either its trade or its population.



JOHN HAMPDEN.

THIS patriot and good man was born in London, in 1594, of a very ancient family. He was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, after which he studied law in the Inner Temple, London. He married at the age of twenty-five, and was soon after elected to Parliament. In 1636, he resisted public abuses with firmness, and denied the right of the king to levy ship-money—a right which had been annulled by Magna Charta. He was prosecuted, and though he lost his cause, his great favor and popularity date from this manifestation of spirit and courage. He now became by common consent the leader of the popular party in the House of Commons against the king. In 1637, he embarked on board a ship in the Thames, with Oliver Cromwell,

John Pym, and other Puritans, and was on the point of sailing for America. A proclamation from the king compelled them, however, to abandon their designs.

In 1642, Hampden was formally accused by the king of high treason; the Commons, however, refused to give him up, and the king, apprehensive of an outbreak, sought safety in flight. The year following, the civil war broke out, and Hampden took up arms in defence of the people. He showed himself intrepid and courageous in the field, but his career was soon cut short by a fatal wound he received on Chalgrove field. He died in June, 1643, at the age of forty-nine. A monument was erected to his memory, some years ago,—on the two hundredth anniversary of his death, 1843,—and stands



Hampden's residence.

upon the spot where he fell. It is a poor and paltry affair, and is in an unfinished condition, the original design not having been carried out, for want of funds. The

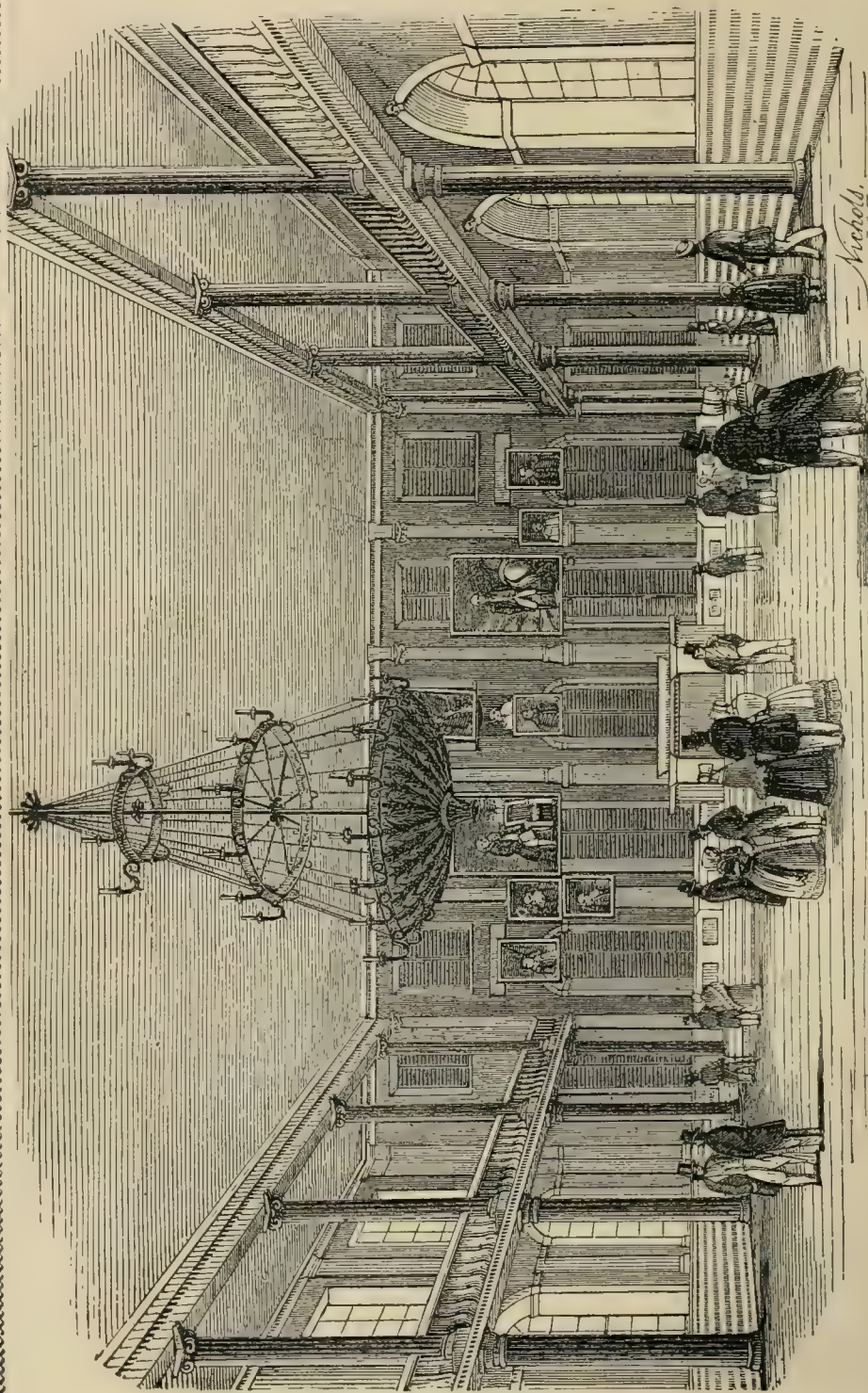
manor-house of the patriot, in Great Hampden parish, is still standing, though uninhabited.

FANEUIL HALL.

In the year 1740, Peter Faneuil, Esq., made an offer to the town of Boston, to build, at his own expense, a complete edifice on the town's land in Dock Square, — the lower part to be used as a market-house. A town-meeting was held July 14, and a petition presented with three hundred and forty signatures, praying the town to accept the proposal; when the question was put, whether the work should be authorized to go on, there were three hundred and sixty-nays to three hundred and sixty-seven yeas — a majority of seven in favor of the proposition. The work was commenced Sept. 8, of the same year, and in about two years after, the keys of the completed building were delivered to the selectmen. A very flattering series of resolves was passed by the city fathers, and the Hon. Thomas Cushing, with eleven other gentlemen, were

appointed to convey them to Mr. Faneuil. The building was unanimously named Faneuil Hall, and in compliance with a vote passed on the occasion, a full length portrait of the donor was executed and placed in the hall.

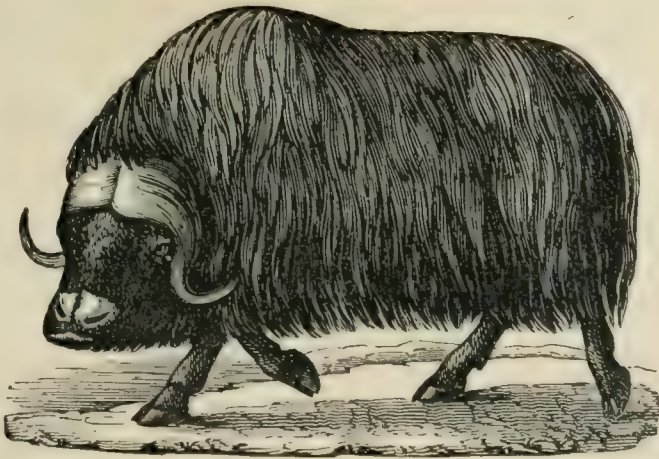
The building was of brick, two stories in height, and measured one hundred feet, by forty; it contained one thousand persons, and was esteemed a great ornament to the town. In 1761, a fire broke out in the vicinity of the building, by which a multitude of wooden structures were consumed; the fire was communicated to the woodwork of Faneuil Hall, and the whole interior was destroyed; nothing was left but the bare walls. It was repaired by order of the General Court. In 1805, the building was enlarged, when forty feet more were added to its width.



Interior of Faneuil Hall

In the interior of the edifice are two large halls, extending nearly the length and width of the ground plan; the under one is devoted to public meetings, political or otherwise, while the upper is devoted to the exercise of the different military corps of the city, with a number of apartments on each side, occupied as armories. The west end of the lower hall, (represented in the opposite engraving,) in which the rostrum is placed, is decorated by a portrait of Washington, by Stuart, and by that of Mr. Faneuil, the donor of the building. Surrounding these are several other paint-

ings of the fathers and patriots of New England. From the centre of the building is suspended an elegant chandelier, lighted by gas, and in front of the east gallery is a large clock, surmounted by an eagle. This hall is seventy-six feet square, and twenty-eight feet high. Galleries run round three sides of the hall; these rest upon Doric columns, while the ceiling is supported by two ranges of Ionic columns. Platforms under and within the galleries rise amphitheatrically, to accommodate spectators. The building has a cupola, from which a fine view of the harbor may be obtained.



THE MUSK-OX.

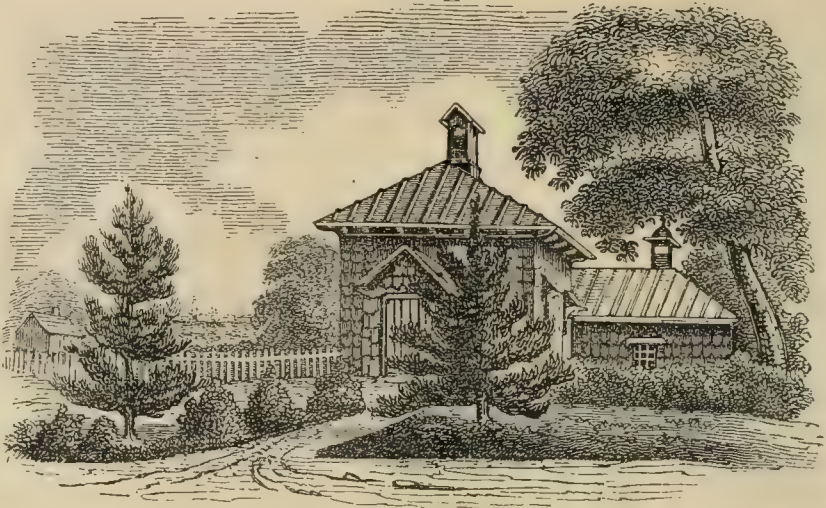
THIS curious beast has its home in the cold, polar regions of North America, and there only it is to be found. It is about half the size of the western bison, and of our common ox. It is covered with long, matted, brown hair, curled on the neck and shoulders, and hanging down below the middle of the leg. The horns are large, and curving downwards, turn up in a semicircle.

It frequents the barren lands near the Arctic Ocean, where the country is rocky and destitute of wood. It feeds on grass and lichens, and goes in herds of twenty or thirty. It runs very fast when pursued, and climbs lofty cliffs with great activity.

Dr. Richardson thus describes the hunting of the musk-ox. If the hunters keep themselves concealed when they fire upon a herd, the poor animals mistake the noise for thunder, and, forming themselves into a group, crowd nearer and nearer together as

their companions fall around them; but, should they discover them by sight, or by their sense of smell, which is very acute, the whole herd seek safety by instant flight. The bulls are very irritable, and, when wounded, will often attack the hunter, and endanger his life, unless he possesses activity and presence of mind. The Esquimaux, who are well accustomed to the pursuit of this animal, sometimes turn its irritable disposition to good account; for, having provoked a bull to attack him, an expert hunter wheels round it more quickly than it can turn, and by repeated stabs in the belly puts an end to its life.

The flesh of the musk-ox, as its name imports, is highly flavored, and smells strongly of musk; but when the animal is fat, it is said to be well tasted. The hair is very fine, and would be useful in the arts, if a sufficient quantity could be procured.



Entrance to Greenwood Cemetery.

GREENWOOD CEMETERY.

This beautiful place of sepulture is situated on Long Island, within the precincts of the city of Brooklyn, about three miles from the south ferry, New York. It was incorporated by the legislature in 1838, but active operations were not commenced till 1842. The charter directs and authorizes the exclusive adaptation of land acquired to the purpose of sepulture, exempts such land from taxation, or attachment for debt. It directs that the surplus income shall be devoted to the improvement and embellishment of the cemetery, and imposes all the obligations necessary for securing the perpetuity of the cemetery. The original purchase amounted to one hundred and eighty-five acres, but subsequent additions have swelled the area to more than three hundred.

The land embraces every variety of hill and dale, wood and water. There are, within the limits of the cemetery, woods, abounding in every variety of foliage, sheets of water, embosomed in the hearts of hills, gentle eminences and bold heights. Through these picturesque scenes wind innumerable paths, laid out in graceful forms, and kept in the best order by constant labor. Vistas have been opened in the woods, the riotous luxuriance of nature has been pruned with taste and caution, and her most attractive features developed to the utmost.

The first object which strikes the eye is the rustic gateway, with its adjacent belfry, whose mournful chime accompanies each new occupant to his last home. On the

right, is the spot called the Poet's Mound, situated in a grove, in the neighborhood of sylvan water. Here is erected a monument to the memory of the eccentric McDonald Clarke. At some distance is Bay-Grove Hill, from which a magnificent prospect opens on the eye; the lower bay of New York, Staten Island, the Jersey shore, the sister cities of Brooklyn and New York, all entering the field of vision. From the summit of Ocean Hill another beautiful view is obtained. The surrounding country is spread out before the eye like a map, the villages of Flatbush, New Utrecht, and Carey Island, being the most prominent objects. On Ocean Hill there is a picturesque cottage, inhabited by the family of one of the persons employed upon the grounds. This rustic abode, which is represented in the above engraving, is embedded in trees, and surrounded by shrubbery and every adjunct of a rural dwelling.

It would require a volume to name the various monuments of this cemetery, or even to describe the most prominent ones. Many of the revolutionary soldiers, who fell upon the spot itself, repose on Battle Hill. Several, also, of the sons of New York, who fell in Mexico, have here been committed to their mother earth. The Indian girl, Do-hum-me, is buried here, and a beautiful monument marks her last resting-place. A very fine monument of white marble marks the place of repose of Miss Conda, a young lady of New York, who was killed by being thrown from a carriage

on her return from a ball. The monument is in the form of a Gothic monument, in the interior of which stands a full-sized figure, representing the young lady in her ball-costume. Another very striking monu-

ment is that erected by the New York pilots to the memory of Thomas Freeborn, one of their number, who perished on board the John Minturn, a Liverpool packet-ship, wrecked on the Jersey shore, in 1846.



ADVENTURES IN INDIA.

It is said that truth is often more strange than fiction; and so it seems to be. We are told that a young Englishman, in the service of the East India Company, was, one day, mounted on an elephant, hunting for tigers. This seems rather formidable sport, especially to our young Yankee Nimrods, who never went forth on an expedition more adventurous than to shoot chipping-birds and bobolinks with a bow and arrow.

In India, wild bees are very common, and for a defence the natives usually carry a large cloth. But our hero, mounted on an elephant, in pursuit of tigers, thought nothing of insects. But as the elephant was plodding along in the forest, he came to an immense tree, hung with drooping moss. As the creature brushed along beneath the boughs, he disturbed a bees' nest; and as these creatures are very quick-tempered

and spiteful — out they came, and attacked the young tiger-hunter by thousands. He was truly in a sad plight; and down he slipped from the elephant, and ran away as fast as possible.

But he was only running from one danger to encounter another. As he was escaping from the bees, a tiger sprang out from the woods, and threatened him with instant destruction. He had just fired his gun, and had no means of defence. Now, there was a monkey overhead, on the tree; and the noise of the gun set him to chattering with all his might. This directed the attention of the bees to the monkey, and they instantly attacked him, and probably killed him outright. At the same time, another elephant of the hunting-party came up, and the youth was rescued from his perilous situation.

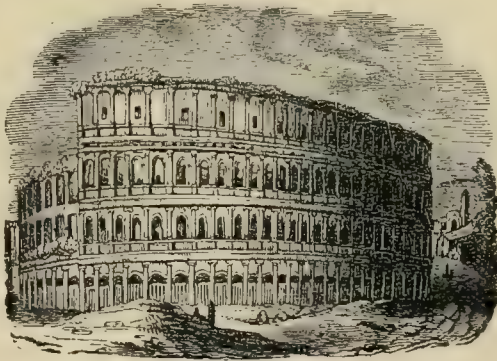


FRANKINCENSE.

IN ancient times, and especially among the Jews, it was a religious custom to burn *incense*, or *frankincense*, upon the altar of the sanctuary. This was the peculiar office of the priests. The article used was an odorous gum, obtained by cutting into the bark of a tree called *thurifera*. Its leaves resemble those of a pear-tree. It grows in

Arabia, and Mount Lebanon. The gum was obtained in the dog-days, as then only would it flow; at other seasons it was hard.

The ancient custom of burning incense is imitated in Catholic churches, where youths are employed to throw the censers, containing the fire, and from which an aromatic smoke is diffused among the audience.



THE COLOSSEUM, AT ROME.

THIS enormous structure was commenced by the Roman emperor Vespasian, and finished by Titus, (A. D. 79.) Though it cost as much as would have sufficed to build a city, yet it occupied only three years in its erection. The great mass of wall being still entire, we have the means of ascertaining its dimensions and its accommodations. It is of an oval form, and covers the space of about six acres. Its greatest length is six hundred and twenty feet, and its great-

est breadth five hundred and thirteen feet. The entire length of the outer wall was therefore, seventeen hundred feet, or one third of a mile; in height this wall is one hundred and fifty-seven feet in its whole extent. The cornice of the upper story is perforated for the purpose of receiving masts, to sustain an awning for the shelter of the spectators. The various seats, which were separated, in order that the several ranks of society might each have their ap-

propriate place, contained accommodation for eighty thousand spectators.

The ground was excavated over the surface of the arena in 1813; and a great number of substructures were then discovered, which by some antiquarians are supposed to be of modern date, and by others to have formed dens for the various beasts that were exhibited. The descriptions which have reached us from historians and other writers, of the variety and extent of the shows, would induce the belief that great and ample conveniences were required beneath the stage to accomplish the wonders which were doubtless there realized in the presence of assembled Rome.

The most immense sums were lavished upon the sports of this circus,—wild animals were brought from every part of the world, to take their part in the games, processions, and battles of the amphitheatre. It has been said, however, that the prodigal waste of the public riches was not the weightiest evil of the sports of the circus; the public morality was sacrificed upon the same shrine as its wealth. The destruction of beasts became a fit preparation for the destruction of man. At first, men who engaged to fight with the animals in the arena were trained to that exercise, as are, at the present day, the matadores in the bullfights of Spain. Their duties consisted in exhausting the courage and strength of the beast by false attacks; to spring on a sudden past him, striking him ere he could recover his guard; to cast a cloak over his eyes, and thus easily despatch him. The greater part of the persons who were exposed to these combats were refractory slaves and condemned malefactors. In time, however, human beings fought against other human beings, as in the case of the gladiators,—later still, the imperial edicts against the early Christians furnished more stimulating exhibitions to the popular appetite for blood. The people were taught to believe that they were assisting at a solemn act of justice, and they consequently never felt a desire to take the part of the helpless and brave in their fatal conflicts with the wild animals of the arena.

For centuries the Colosseum has furnished from its walls and seats the material for palaces and temples; the clamps of iron and brass, that held together the ponderous stones of that enormous edifice, have been from time to time removed. It has been resorted to as a quarry by generation after generation, but the enormous skeleton still remains in prodigious majesty! It stands

just outside of the walls of Rome, and is a favorite resort of the curious and of strangers.

Byron gives the following highly wrought picture of a gladiator dying in the arena of the Colosseum:—

"I see before me the gladiator lie;
He leans upon his hand—his manly brow
Consents to death, but conquers agony,
And his drooped head sinks gradually low—
And through his side the last drops, ebbing slow
From the red gash, fall, heavy, one by one,
Like the first thunder shower; and now
The arena swarms around him,—he is gone,
Ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the wretch
who won.

He heard it, but he heeded not,—his eyes
Were with his heart, and that was far away;
He recked not of the life he lost, nor prize,
But where his hut by the Danube lay,—
There were his young barbarians all at play,
There was their Dacian mother—he, their sire,
Butchered to make a Roman holiday—
All this rushed with his blood—shall he expire,
And unrevenged? Arise, ye Goths, and glut your ire!"



KING ALFRED'S SEAL.

KING Alfred of England lived about a thousand years ago, and although he was sometimes reduced by his enemies, the Danes, to such extremity that he hardly knew where to find lodging, and, in one instance, it is said, watched the cakes that were baking for an old woman,—he still appears to have had some luxuries. Antiquarians have preserved a copy of a jewel, or seal, which he wore suspended from his neck, and which, it would appear, was a thing of no little cost.



THE BALLOON.

THE notion of flying in the air, either by means of wings or by supernatural agency, seems as old as the world itself: the wings of Dedalus and Icarus, the talarii of Mercury, and the mysterious carpet of the four Facardins in the Arabian Nights, bear ample testimony to the antiquity of this idea. The first notion of a balloon, however, was held by a Jesuit named Francis Lana, in 1670, who conceived the idea of raising metal balls in the atmosphere, which had previously been exhausted of air, but which should be at the same time so thin, as to weigh less than their bulk of air. The experiment, however, he never tried, as, in his age, it was not believed that God would allow an invention to succeed, by means of which civil government could so easily be disturbed. Later experiments have proved that strength to resist the external air is incompatible with the necessary degree of

thinness in the material. From this period, one hundred years elapsed, before the idea of raising a body in the air, by means of its being lighter than the air whose space it occupies, was pursued any further. In 1782, an attempt was made to raise bodies filled with hydrogen gas, a substance, which, as is well known, is lighter than atmospheric air. The experimenter succeeded, however, in raising nothing heavier than a soap bubble. In the same year, the brothers Montgolfier, paper-makers at Lyons, attempted to raise a paper balloon by means of hydrogen gas. Being unsuccessful in this, they conceived the idea of applying fire underneath a large balloon of paper built upon a framework of wood, and containing a receptacle for fire in the place where, in modern balloons, the car is suspended. This experiment was entirely successful. The balloon first rose about one mile in a direct line,

then described a horizontal line of about seven thousand feet, after which it gradually sunk. The next attempt was upon a balloon of lute-string dipped in a solution of India rubber, and filled with hydrogen gas. The experiment at first failed, but on the 27th of August, the same year, at Paris, the balloon rose beautifully to a great height, and fell about twelve miles off. Soon after, animals were sent up — sheep, cocks and ducks; and on the 15th of October, the first human being made an ascent of 100 feet. The balloon, however, was held by a rope, and connection with the earth not entirely severed. A month later, on the 21st of Nov., the daring feat of completely leaving the earth was performed by two gentlemen, one of whom was M. Rosier, and the other the Marquis d'Arlandes. The balloon was a *Montgolfier*, or one in which the elevating power was air rarified by fire. The signature of Benjamin Franklin, who at that time was American minister to Paris, is upon the official paper which describes the balloon, its dimensions, &c. It was seventy feet high, forty-six in diameter, and carried a weight of from 16 to 1700 pounds; it rose to the height of five miles in twenty-five minutes. When the aeronauts wished to ascend still higher, they shook a bundle of straw into the flame; when they wished to sink, they let the fire smoulder, or extinguished it with a wet sponge. The attempt was successful, and the voyagers alighted in safety, after an absence of a little less than an hour.

The first trial of a hydrogen balloon was made a week later from the garden of the Tuileries, just after sunset. It ascended two miles with perfect ease; its occupants here came in sight of the sun, which seemed to rise again, as at morning in the east. The balloon and its two travellers were the only illuminated objects, all the rest of nature being plunged in shadow.

During the next two years, many ascensions were made by different persons, and successive improvements and inventions were added. The parachute was invented in 1784, and the first attempt at steering a balloon was made in this year, but without success. In 1802, M. Garnerin descended successfully from a great height by means of a parachute. In 1806, two aeronauts ascended to such a distance, that they came into an atmosphere so rarified as to burst the balloon. The remnants, however, broke the fall, and they descended in safety. From the beginning of this century to the present day, but little progress has been

made in an art which seems destined to be of little service to mankind. No possible means of guiding the balloon has yet been discovered, or any practicable method of giving it a horizontal motion, so as to withdraw it from the influence of winds and currents. It has now become a mere toy, and for any practical or scientific purpose has long since ceased to be of the slightest account.

One of the largest balloons ever constructed is that of Mr. Green, a celebrated English aeronaut, which is called "*Continent*," and has made many ascensions from London and Paris. The following account of an ascent from the Hippodrome at Paris, in 1848, we take from a recent French journal. It is from the pen of Theophile Gautier, an eminent Parisian romancer and feuilletonist.

"Last Sunday, about five o'clock in the afternoon, Green's balloon sprung from the enclosure of the Hippodrome into the blue abyss of the heavens.

"The ascension of a balloon is certainly not a novelty at the present day; but an aerostat, like the one belonging to Green, is not of the ordinary class; its colossal dimensions, the extraordinary care with which it is constructed, the comfort of its installation — if one may so speak — make it the wonder of aerian navigation, and place it in the rank of a vessel of a hundred guns. To see it swelling its enormous taffeta case under the net-work of cords which holds the car lined with red velvet, — one feels perfectly at ease as to the dangerous chances of a voyage through the air. It would seem safer than an excursion in a diligence or upon a rail-road.

"Admitted into the reserved enclosure, we of course saw the departure, being near the spot. Nothing could be more quiet or more gentle. Mr. Green, in a black coat and white cravat, like a gentleman going out to dine, stepped into his carriage — I should say his balloon — with confidence and self-possession. A charming young English girl, accompanied by a friend, had already taken her place in the boat or car. She was calm and smiling; animation tinged her cheeks slightly, but it arose rather from embarrassment at seeing so many eyes fixed upon her, than from any fear whatever. Her intelligent face breathed that confidence in the inventions of human genius, which characterizes the American and English races. A Parisian lady would have screamed loudly.

"The balloon held by cords, trembled, and balanced itself like the Roc,* preparing to take flight. The comparison is poor, but we can find no other. And what is really this bird, the Roc of the Arabian tales, which can scarcely lift a poor prince sewed in a sheep's skin, when compared with this bird of silk, swelled by gas, which carries four persons in its enclosure of net-work!

"A strong cord still held it to the earth, but soon, upon a signal from Mr. Green, the cable was cut, and the aerian vessel arose steadily, with a movement at once easy, powerful, and of infinite majesty. As much as the locomotive has an infernal appearance, so has the balloon a celestial one — without any play upon words. The one borrows its auxiliaries from iron, coal, fire and boiling water — the other employs only silk and gas — a thin cloth filled with a light wind. The engine, with its frightful shrieks, its noisy rattling, and its black puffs of smoke, runs upon inflexible rails, roars through the bowels of the earth, and dives into the darkness of tunnels, seeming as if seeking the devil who invented it; the balloon, without noise and without effort, leaves the earth, where the laws of gravity hold us, and mounts tranquilly towards God. Unhappily, the balloon, like inspiration, goes where the wind guides it, — this every one knows; *spiritus flat ubi vult*; and the steam engine, like prose, goes straight upon its road.

"Green and his balloon were already overlooking Paris and all its horizon; long trails of sand — ballast that he threw over to raise himself higher — streaked the heavens with their white tracks, proving, by the time it took them to descend to the earth, the height to which the intrepid aeronaut had mounted in a few minutes. He had disappeared, while the crowd was still looking for him in the blue depths of the atmosphere. What a splendid and magnificent spectacle the Triumphal Arch, and the giant city with its black ants, illuminated by the setting sun, must have afforded him! What greatness, and at the same time what littleness! — and how mean, from that distance, must seem the cares and ambitions of the world!

While looking with the rest of the crowd, a world of thoughts came whirling through our brain; the balloon, which it was endeavored to make perform a useful part in the battle of Fleusus, and at the siege of Toulon,

has only been considered, up to this time, as an amusing experiment of natural philosophy. It is made to figure in fêtes and in public solemnities; for the crowd, who has more feeling for great things than academies and wise bodies, feels an interest in balloon ascensions, which has not diminished since the first attempts of Montgolfier. It is a profoundly human instinct which induces us to follow into the air, until it is lost to the sight, this globe swelled with smoke, as if it contained the destinies of the future.

"Man, the king of creation in intelligence, is, physically, but indifferently endowed. He has neither the swiftness of the stag, nor the eye of the eagle, nor the scent of a dog, which is nearly a soul; — neither has he the wing of the bird, nor the fin of the fish, for everything in man is sacrificed to the brain. All these auxiliaries he has been forced to furnish himself by the skill of his hand and the sweat of his brow. The horse, the carriage, and the rail-car make up to him for his want of speed; the telescope and the microscope equal the eagle's eye; the compass enables him to follow a track as unerringly as a dog; the ship, the steam-boat, and the diving-bell open to him the dominion of the waters. Nothing now remained but the air, where the bird escaped us, followed only a few hundred feet by the arrow or gun — ingenious means of bringing distances nearer together. It really seems as if God should have given us such wings as the painters lend the angels; but the beauty and grandeur of man consist in his not having these giant appendages, or being embarrassed by fins. With the power of thought, and the hand, that admirable tool, he must seek and find, out of himself, all his physical powers.

"The idea of mounting into the air is not new; it is not to-day that Phaeton asked to get into Phœbus' car, and that Dedalus launched into the air his son Icarus. Their descents were only unaccomplished ascents. The Griffins, the Hippogriffs, the Pegasus, the winged shoes of Mercury, the arrow of Abarys, the carpet of the four Facardins, testify to the continuance and persistence of this idea. At night, does not the dream deliver us from the laws of weight? Does it not give us the faculty of going, of coming, and of flying to the summit of things before unattainable, or of losing ourselves in the infinite heights? This general and oft-repeated dream, which expresses the secret desire of humanity, has it not something prophetic? Perhaps modern scepticism treats too lightly

* The Roc is a fabulous bird, often mentioned in the Arabian Nights' tale of Sinbad the Sailor, as being of great strength, and flying easily with human beings attached to his legs.

the meaning of these flights of the soul—temporarily freed from the more earthly control of reason and sense.

"With the astonishing simplicity of the operations of nature, a miracle took place in the fire-place, without attracting attention, every time that the smoke carried out of the chimney a piece of burnt paper. It required six thousand years to take a hint from this simple fact. The balloon floats in the air as oil floats upon wine, as cork upon water, as the cannon-ball upon mercury, by relations of weight and of lightness—one single law everywhere.

"Unfortunately, the balloon has neither wings, nor tail, nor neck, nor feet—nothing which can guide it; it is a vessel without sail or helm, a fish without fins, a bird without feathers; it floats, that is all; it is immense, and it is nothing; it is so young that it does not know its way, and it goes in as great uncertainty as a lost child.

"We cannot understand why all the inventors, wise mechanicians, chemists, poets, do not occupy themselves continually, by endeavoring to solve the problem of the guiding of balloons, and that people pass their time in making revolutions more or less opportune, while this important problem is not searched out.

"It is shameful for man to have found the hippogriff which transports him to the celestial regions, and not to know how to guide it; and yet every day the birds go and come on airy wings, as if to instruct and defy us. The air, although a fluid, offers points of propulsion, since the condor, or the sparrow, mounts, descends, goes to the right and left, quickly or slowly, as he pleases. The other day we read in a newspaper, that a Spaniard of Cadiz intended to depart from his native city, in a balloon, to descend at Madrid, upon the queen's balcony, and to kiss the hand of her gracious majesty. Another paper affirmed that he had executed the programme. It was a puff, a *canard*; * but one day this *canard* must become a truth. This *canard*, this anecdotal paradox is only a premature fact. It relates that which will be.

"The government should promise a recompense of twenty-five million francs to him who should discover the means of directing balloons, and appoint twenty wise men to make experiments upon this subject. This would be money well employed. It is necessary to hurry; the case is urgent. There will be spent, in years to come, one or two

thousand millions, perhaps more, for the completion of rail-roads; it is an unnecessary prodigality; the rail-road in comparison with the aerostat, is a gross and barbarous invention, and besides, contrary to the conformation or disposition of the planet we inhabit. The proof of this is in the immense labor required for the shortest distance of rail-road; excavations, filling up of ditches, bridges, viaducts, tunnels, and all this to make, with a thousand dangers, ten miserable leagues an hour. The rail-road evidently violates the terrestrial configuration; it scratches too violently the face of its mother, not to be a transitory and subversive conception; not that we would wish to depreciate it—it has come at its time, and serves to render man patient, in satisfying his desires for speed. To go in a rail-car, is to fly upon the surface of the earth; but it is time to quit the earth, and soar in the regions of the empyrean! The day that the net-work of iron is completed, and when the last rail-way is laid, an unknown, a dreamer, a child, a fool, will come with the helm and the wing of the balloon, and it will be so simple, so frail, so easy, so cheap, that every one will exclaim, 'But, I should have discovered that myself!' Then the rail-roads will transport only heavy merchandise, and which does not need to go quick—old men with annuities, dowagers who fear for their dogs, and others of timid manners and obtuse minds, who now go to Versailles in a boat, or to Rouen in a diligence.

"This epoch is so near that we hope to see it. That will be a great day! Man will truly become master of his planet, and will have conquered his atmosphere! No more seas, no more rivers, no more mountains, no more valleys; that will be the true reign of liberty. Merely by this knowledge of the direction of balloons, the whole face of the world will change immediately. Other forms of government, other manners, a new style of architecture, a different system of fortification will be needed; but then men will no longer make war. The custom-house and its taxes, and the strong-hold, will disappear. Visit, if you can, with your gauge and your yardstick, balloons ten thousand feet in the air; of what use will be moats, ditches, portcullis and bridges, against an aerian army? No more passports; no gendarme will be able to ask of Mr. Green this certificate of morality with which robbers only are provided. Don Juan's manner of proceeding will be entirely reversed; they will descend from

* *Canard*, French for duck—it is synonymous with our word *hoax*—puff—humbug.

neaven instead of coming from hell. Palaces, instead of courts of honor, will have roofs of ceremony, upon which balloons with their freight of foreign diplomats and statesmen will alone be allowed to descend.

"What a fine spectacle it will be to see crossing one another in the air, at different heights, these swarms of balloons, painted with brilliant colors, guided during the day by the light, and at night with their lanterns, having the appearance of stars traversing the firmament !

"Then the ascension of the highest mountains will be but child's play. We shall penetrate into China, and go to Timbuctoo as one goes to St. Cloud ; the deserts of Africa, of Asia and of America, will be forced to deliver up their secrets. We shall go even to the border of the atmosphere which surrounds us. We shall visit creation in every nook, and recess.

"There will be servant balloons and master balloons ; and in speaking of the luxury or extravagance of a person, it will be said, 'He is rich — he has a balloon of thirty-four

thousand cubic feet of gas ;' which will be equivalent to saying that he has a coach and four.

"When this dream is realized, the execution of another, already dreamed by the poets, will be attempted. Man, arrived at the outward limits of his atmosphere, will wish to leave his planet ; and will seriously attempt the moon of Astolfo and of Cyrano ; and we do not fear to say it, this enterprise will succeed !

"This will be the dream and occupation of our nephews. It is a conquest above the strength of the humanity existent at the present day ; the years of the world are each a thousand years as man with his diminutive arithmetic counts them. Humanity, then, at the present moment, is only six years old. One cannot expect much from a child so young, and that has not much talent. It is now learning to eat, to walk, to swim, to fly, and later in life, will think and do great things, but, alas ! we shall be no longer here to see them !"



PETER THE HERMIT.

THIS man, who commenced one of the most wonderful movements recorded in history, was a gentleman of Amiens, in Picardy, France, who quitted the military profession to become a hermit and a pilgrim. He was actuated by the sentiments which pervaded the Christian world at the close of the 11th century ; and, under the expectation of the immediate dissolution of the world, he, with

many other deluded men, hastened to the Holy Land in 1093, that he might terminate his days in a spot that had given birth to the Saviour of the world.

On his return, he spoke in so affecting a manner of the cruel treatment which the Christian pilgrims experienced in Palestine, that Pope Urban II. sent him over all Europe to preach a general *crusade* to deliver

the Holy Land from the oppression of the infidels. The eloquence of Peter, and the spirit of the times, prevailed. A numerous concourse of people flocked together for the pious labor, and the holy hermit began his march at the head of 40,000 men, all animated with the zeal of devotion and the hope of celestial protection. In crossing Hungary, this *religious* army committed the most horrid excesses, and so provoked the inhabitants to revenge, that, in skirmishes with them and with the Turks, many lost their lives, and only 3000 reached the gates

of Constantinople. In advancing through Asia, the siege of Antioch delayed their progress, and Peter would have abandoned the hopeless enterprise, had he not been bound by an oath to Tancred, that he would share the dangers of the crusade.

At the conquest of the Holy Land, and in the siege of Jerusalem, 1099, Peter behaved with great valor, and for his services was appointed vicar-general of Palestine. He afterwards returned to Europe, and died at the Abbey of Noirmoutier, of which he was the founder.



Packet ship Devonshire

SHIP-BUILDING.

WE are so familiar with navigation, as to be unaware of the real triumph of human art in the building of ships. In order to comprehend this subject, we must go back and trace the progress by which mankind have attained to their present degree of perfection in this art. We must remember

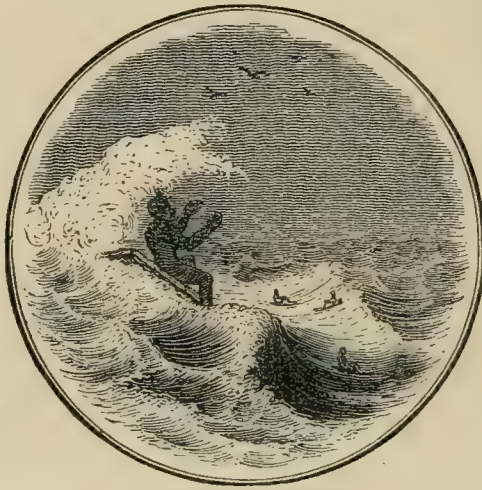
that man was not born a sailor; and that what he knows of navigation is the result of experience and education.

There is an old legend that a man, ages ago, saw a piece of a reed floating upon the water, which suggested the first idea of navigation. After this, probably, savages

crossed rivers on logs, but no doubt they found them rather ticklish craft. Then doubtless came rafts; then canoes of hollowed logs; then artificial boats, of various

forms and materials — some of wood, some of skin, and some of bark.

The earliest navigators, on a large scale, were the Phœnicians, who made voyages the



The Beginning of Navigation.

length of the Mediterranean, and along the northern coasts of Europe and down the Red Sea — as early as the time of Solomon, 1000 years B. C. Their vessels were of the shape now in use; they had sails, which are said to have been suggested by the little sea animal called nautilus; they had no decks, and were not over twenty or thirty tons' burthen. They had masts and rudders — the prow was decorated with paint and gilding, and represented the image of some god.

The ships of the Greeks and Romans, in after times, were larger, but they were uncouth structures, managed with difficulty, and liable to numerous accidents and hindrances. The war ships were nothing but large row boats. These were very long and narrow, like canoes. The cable and anchor were later inventions. The latter at first was a large stone. In the days of the Roman emperors vessels of immense size were occasionally built, but they were of little use, except for the transport of heavy objects.

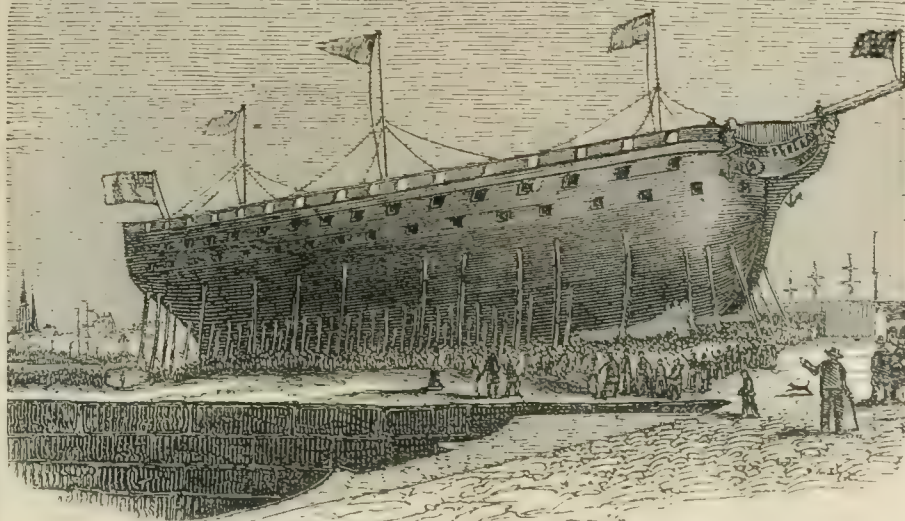
In the middle ages, navigation made little progress; but about the close of the fifteenth century, its strides were prodigious. The mariner's compass had been invented, and the sailor had now a guide over the mysterious ocean. Hence America was discovered in 1492, though the three ships of Columbus were not so large as our common schooners, and had no proper decks.

From this period there has been a steady advance in ship-building; the English, for a long period, took the lead, but it is now admitted that the fastest sailing vessels in the world are those of the U. States.

We have given a portrait of the packet ship *Devonshire*, built at N. York, in 1848. She is of 1500 tons' burthen — her main cabin is finished with mahogany, and gilded carvings. On her arrival in London she attracted great curiosity, and was visited by the Duke of Wellington and other celebrated persons, who expressed the greatest admiration of the beauty of her model, and the elegance and comfort of her accommodations.

Our navy is not so large as that of Great Britain, but no war ships surpass ours. The war of 1812 attested the capabilities of our country in naval warfare. The recent launch of the noble ship *Vermont* presents some curious facts. Her keel was laid in 1817, and the hulk mainly built soon after. It was then suffered to lie under cover, at the Charlestown navy yard, till thirty years after, when it was finished and launched. She is pierced for one hundred and twenty guns, but her rate is eighty-four. Her length is two hundred and thirty-four feet — breadth of beam, fifty-four feet, depth of hold thirty-seven feet four inches.

If we now look back, taking a view of the facts mentioned, we shall be prepared to estimate, in some degree, the extent of



United States ship of war, Vermont.

that skill and power, which have enabled mankind to construct such amazing works, and guide them, obedient as the horse to the bit, over all the oceans of the world.

We have not spoken of steam navigation; that is still another triumph of human art — one which was achieved by our own countryman, Fulton, and within the memory of

many persons now living, that is, in the year 1807. And what wonders do we now behold! Not only do we see floating palaces gliding along the coasts and up the rivers of our country, but the ocean itself is traversed by these leviathans, with as much regularity as by stage-coaches upon the land.

THE MAMMOTH CAVE, KENTUCKY.

Thus wonderful cavern, which is a world within itself, embracing in its submundane regions, seas, mountains, lakes, and rivers, is situated in the interior of Kentucky, in a wild, broken region, but highly picturesque. It is approached through, as it were, a natural bower of trees, growing on either side of a beautiful and romantic dell. At the termination is the great portal to this nether world, and you descend into it by some winding stone steps; then, if you choose, you can penetrate miles into the heart of the earth. No impure air exists in any part of the cave; on the contrary, the air is delightful and exhilarating, and highly recom-

mended for disease of the lungs. There are a number of small houses built within, to accomodate consumptive persons, and numbers have resided there continually, finding great benefit. The temperature is uniformly the same, — winter and summer being always 59° Fahrenheit. Combustion is perfect in all parts, and decomposition is unobservable. Reptiles of no description have ever been seen within the cave. The loudest peal of thunder cannot be heard a quarter of a mile within, and the only sound heard is the roar of waterfalls, of which there are some seven or eight.

The entire cave, as far as it is explored,



The Mammoth Cave.

(the end is not found yet,) contains two hundred or more avenues, nearly fifty domes, twenty-two pits, and three rivers. Many of the avenues contain large and magnificent stalagmite columns, extending from the floor to the ceiling, and some of very grotesque and fanciful shape. Graceful stalactites may likewise be seen pendant from the ceilings, as uniform and regular as if they were cut by the hand of man. The engraving gives a view of one of those avenues where the stalagmites and stalactites abound in great profusion. It is called the "Gothic Avenue," from the formations which resemble Gothic architecture. In another part of this avenue, is what is called the "Gothic Chapel," these stalactic formations are still more striking, very much resembling a monkish cathedral. In the "Fairy Grotto," the formations likewise assume a great many fanciful shapes.

To the admirer of the wonderful and sublime, we say, go visit this the greatest of the Almighty's subterranean works! No description, however well written, can give the least idea of it. No other cave can be compared with it in its extent and grandeur; in its serene and solemn majesty it stands — alone!

Among the wonders of this cave is a species of fish without eyes, found in one of the rivers. A late traveller says, "What shall I say of this wonder of nature, as a whole? I had heard and read descriptions of it, long since; but the half, the quarter, was not told. Its vastness, its lofty arches, its immense reach into the bosom of the solid earth, fill me with astonishment. It is — like Mount Blanc, Chimborazo, and the falls of Niagara — one of God's mightiest works. Shall I compare it with anything of a similar description, which you have seen on the other side of the Atlantic? with the Grotto of Neptune, or that of the Sibyl, at Tivoli, or with any of Virgil's poetic Italian machinery? No comparison can be instituted. I speak, as you are aware, from personal knowledge. You, seated on the opposite bank of the Arno, have seen me clamber up, from the noisy waters below, to the entrance of the far-famed Grotto of Neptune, which I leisurely explored. In point of capaciousness, it has little more to boast of than the cellar of a large hotel, and, like that, was, as I think, excavated by human hands. That of the Tiburtine Sibyl is still more limited in its dimensions. In-

deed, every cavern which I have ever seen, if placed alongside of this, would dwindle into insignificance."

The same writer says, "I cannot refrain from giving you an account of an incident that happened in this cave last spring. A wedding party went to the cave to spend the honeymoon. While there, they went to visit those beautiful portions of the cave which lie beyond the river 'Jordan.' In order to do this, a person has to sail down the river nearly a mile before reaching the avenue which leads off from the river on the opposite side, — for there is no shore, or landing-place, between the point above on this side, where you come to the river, and that below on the other; for the river fills the whole width of one avenue of the cave, and is several feet deep where the side walls descend into the water. This party had descended the river, visited the cave beyond, and had again embarked on the water for their return homewards. After they had ascended the river about half way, some of the party, who were in a high glee, got into a romp and overturned the boat. Their lights were all extinguished, their matches wet, the boat filled with water and sunk immediately; and *there they were*, in 'the blackness of darkness,' up to their chins in water. No doubt, they would all have been lost, had it not been for the guide's great presence of mind. He charged them to remain perfectly still; for, if they moved a single step, they might get out of their depth in water; and swimming would not avail them, for they could not see where to swim to. He knew that, if they could bear the coldness of the water any length of time, they would be safe; for another guide would be sent from the cave house, to see what had become of them. And in this perilous condition, up to their mouths in water, in the midst of darkness 'more than night,' *four miles under ground*, they remained for upwards of five hours; at the end of which time, another guide came to their relief. Matthew, or Mat, the guide who rescued them, told me that, 'when he got to where they were, his fellow-guide, Stephen, (the Columbus of the cave,) was swimming around the rest of the party, cheering them, and directing his movements, while swimming, by the sound of their voices, which were raised, one and all, in prayer and supplication for deliverance!'"



Battle of Lexington.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

THE war of American independence was the result of causes which had been for ages at work. It was but the carrying out of principles, which had cost the toil and treasure of many and many a nation, in their struggles against oppression, — principles which had been sealed by the blood of many a holy martyr to liberty. The immediate causes of the appeal to arms by our patriot fathers of 1776, are soon detailed. England's king wanted money to build a splendid new palace, it is said; for when a young man, he had been laughed at as having the worst looking palace in all Europe. But the treasury was exhausted by "royal" wars, in which the nation had no proper interest; wars to carry out that favorite bullism, that "France is the natural enemy of England."

Our people had contributed their full share of blood and treasure to defend themselves against the French and Indians, on their frontier, who had been aroused against them by the foolish European politics of England, begotten of an encroaching and overbearing disposition. It was proposed to raise money, now the war was over, ostensibly to help pay its expenses, but really to be expended by the British Parliament, in schemes our people had little knowledge of, or interest in; expended too, after the usual lavish manner of the mother government, in pensioning off its aristocracy, gilding the costly bauble of royalty, and providing for

exclusive interests. Had not our wise forefathers taken their stand, at once, we should now have been ground down by taxes as our English brethren are, to pay the thousands of millions of British debt, rolled up chiefly by the obstinacy of the English government in standing directly in the way of the progress of the world, and attempting, by her single arm, or rather purse, to stay the onward march of freedom!

The men of the revolution took the ground that they would pay no tax, the expending of the revenue from which they should have no voice in. They were not represented in the Parliament of England, and had no vote in the disbursement of the revenue raised. They therefore thought there should be no revenue raised from internal taxation in the colonies, except what might be raised and spent by the colonial government, and thus accommodated, both in the mode of its levying and expenditure, to the wants of the colonies. On the other hand, the English thought that the interests of the mother country were in all cases to take precedence of the interests of the colonies; that the colonists were getting quite too free in speaking their minds, quite too full of ideas of independence. Scarce an inhabitant of England but felt that "our" colonies were his personal subjects, that their inhabitants held a position subordinate to real Englishmen;

and thus their setting up an interest and government of their own, seemed to him something like a personal insult. The upstart must be put down. The general English feeling, at the outset, was, The Americans must be *humbled and subjugated*. Thus the passions of both nations were soon enlisted.

The claims as to taxation had been urged in various forms, and been reluctantly submitted to, evaded or resisted, as the circumstances allowed, till, in 1764–65, after the odious duties on sugar, molasses, and some other articles, had been declared perpetual, and the right to trial by jury tampered with, the Stamp Act was passed, as the entering wedge of a series of measures, which were to reduce every man, woman, and child, of the colonies, to the tax-ridden condition of the people of the old world. The night after its passage, Franklin wrote, "The sun of liberty is set, — light up the candles of industry and frugality." "We shall light up torches of quite another sort," was the reply; and they were lighted up, both literally and metaphorically, from one end of the States to the other, till such a flame was kindled, as snapt like tow the thousand

cords which bound us to England — her expensive royalty, her ambition, her destinies, and her oppressions.

The Stamp Act was repealed because it could not be enforced, but the tyrannous disposition still remained. In 1767, tea, glass, oil, and painters' colors, imported into America, were taxed; the authority of the New York Assembly was suspended, till it should consent to quarter troops; and naval officers were appointed custom-house officers, to enforce the trade and navigation acts. In 1765, a congress from nine states had met in New York, and measures, looking to the calling of another, were taken by the Massachusetts Legislature, in 1768 — but the governor dissolved that body. The House of Burgesses in Virginia, sustaining the cause of liberty, was also dissolved. In fine, the whole country was in commotion; several outbreaks took place, and repeated collisions occurred between the colonial governors and the people. These agitations were not allayed by the repeal, in 1771, of the act laying duties, for it excepted *tea*, and thus asserted the hateful principle of taxation without representation.

When the tea came over, in some of the



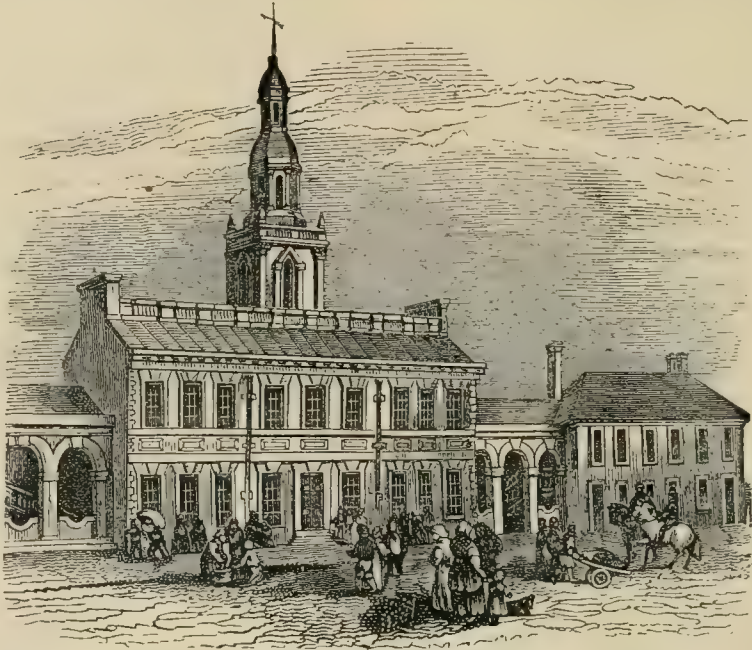
Destruction of Tea in Boston Harbor.

ports it was stowed in damp cellars and spoiled; in others, the pilots were not permitted to bring the ships to the wharf — nowhere was it allowed to be sold. In Boston, a party disguised as Indians, threw over three hundred and forty-two chests of it. For this spirited act, called the "Boston Tea Party," Parliament shut up the port of

Boston, 1774; that is, all commercial intercourse with Boston was forbidden, and the landing or shipping of goods there, till the tea should be paid for. Other acts followed, forbidding town meetings in the state, abolishing jury trials in certain cases, and appointing counsellors by the crown. The cause of Boston was espoused by all the

colonies, and the necessities of her people supplied by contributions. The assembly, convened at Salem, nominated five delegates to a colonial congress. Everything was tending to centralization and unity of purpose throughout the colonies, and every act of the mother country but served to bind them more closely together, and to ripen the seeds of revolution.

In 1774, a colonial congress met at Philadelphia; twelve colonies were represented. "For solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity,



Hall of Congress, at Philadelphia.

and wisdom of conclusion, no body of men could stand in preference to this congress." Such was the judgment of a distinguished Englishman, Lord Chatham; such has been the verdict of posterity. They approved of the conduct of Massachusetts, and took measures for her relief; drew up a declaration or bill of rights; recommended non-importation associations, and encouragement of domestic arts; an address to the people of Great Britain, a memorial to the inhabitants of British America, and a loyal address to the king. They penned an encouraging memorial to their constituents, passed resolves against the slave-trade, and resolves to continue the colonial union till their rights were obtained. Their petition to the king was a masterpiece of feeling and force.

War approaches; magazines of gunpowder and other military stores are seized at Charlestown and at Cambridge; a provisional congress, with Hancock for president, meets at Salem and adjourns to Concord; minute men are appointed, bound to be ready to march in "defence of the province," that is, of liberty, at a moment's warning; three

general officers, to command them and the military, are elected; a committee of supplies is chosen; and a committee of safety to sit during the recess. In November they again meet, appoint one fourth of the militia to act as minute men; elect two more general officers, and send to inform New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, of what they are doing, and request their coöperation in raising an army of twenty thousand men. Other colonies followed their example in part.

Insidious compromises were proposed, but the difference of opinion between England and the colonies was too great to be settled except by war—and both nations prepared for the combat. On April 18th, 1775, the first blood of the revolution was shed at Lexington. Here a few men, whose names will ever be glorious in the annals of their country, were drawn up, on the common, to oppose a body of British soldiers sent from Boston, to destroy military stores at Concord. Concentrating British arrogance in one sentence, the first cry of their commander, as he advanced, was,

"Disperse, you rebels! throw down your arms and disperse!" followed up by a fire of bullets which killed eight men. Liberty or death was now the choice of every man who bore a heart. Fathers left their children, mothers sent their sons, husbands parted from wives—all bid adieu to what was dearest to them in existence, to peril life in the holy cause. They buckled on their armor, not with a reckless love of excitement, but with a deep-felt, pious, earnest determination to do or die,—a serious humor most fatal to tyranny. Twenty thousand men were soon col-



Siege of Boston.

lected around Boston, and General Gage was closely besieged, and became straitened for provisions. Ticonderoga and Crown Point were seized. "By whose authority?" said La Place, commander of the former. "God, and the Continental Congress!" shouted Ethan Allen, receiving the sword of his prisoner. Skenesborough Pass was also seized, and a sloop-of-war at St. John's. Thus, without bloodshed, were the keys of Canada taken, and the command of the lakes secured.

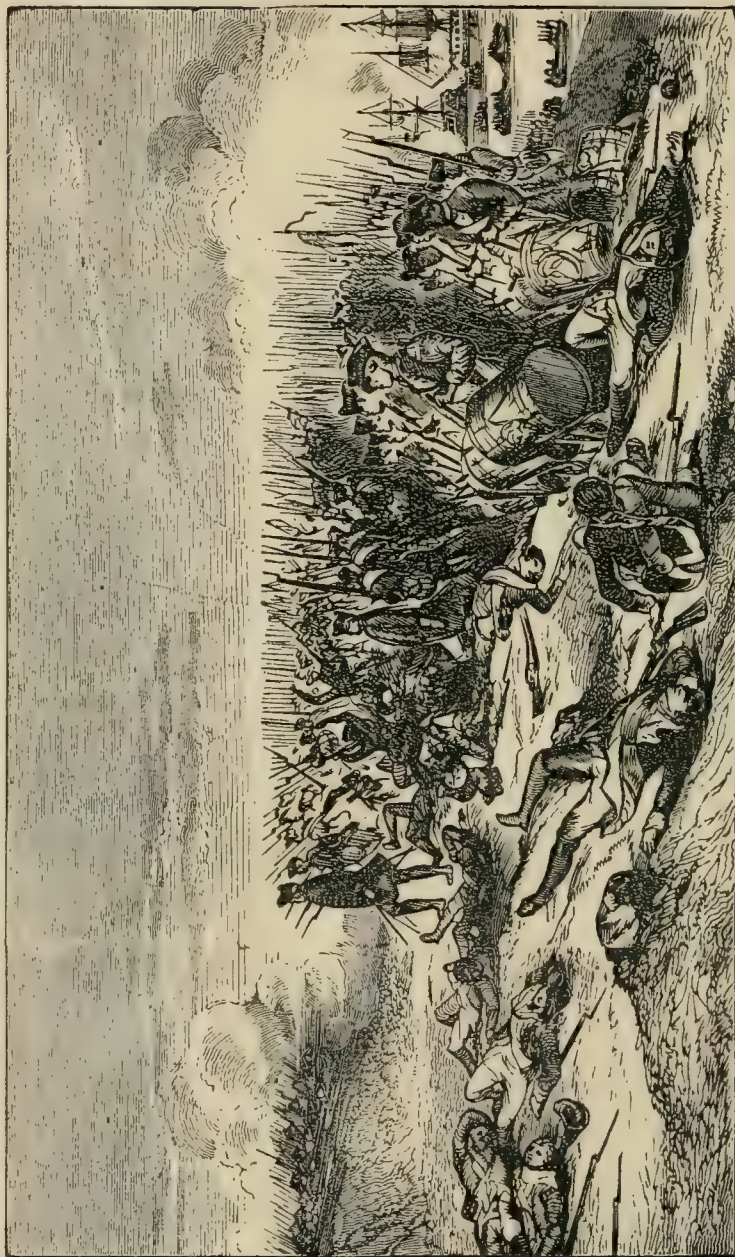
The battle of Bunker Hill was fought on the 17th June, 1776. On the 15th, Washington was elected commander-in-chief, by the unanimous vote of Congress; he joined the army soon after the battle, and introduced discipline, subordination and order. Meanwhile, Congress published a dignified and temperate manifesto.

Two expeditions were sent against Canada; one led by Arnold, with incredible hardship, up the Kennebec, through the pathless wilds of Maine; the other along the old route, by way of Lake Champlain. Montgomery now took St. John's and Montreal, and marched after Gov. Carleton to Quebec. Joining Arnold, their force was

but 1,000, with which they sat down to besiege the Gibraltar of America, with its garrison of 1,500. Rather than retire, they came to the desperate resolution to storm the city. Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded; 400 Americans were made prisoners, and Arnold, with the rest of his troops, blockaded the place.

The British, being masters of the sea-coast, burned every hostile port. This but served to exasperate, and the Americans retaliated by arming hundreds of bold and shrewd privateers, that plundered the British commerce on every sea, and even in the very ports of the haughty island itself. In Virginia, the militia defeated the royalists. On the meeting of Parliament, acts were passed with the design of annihilating every vestige of American navigation and commerce. Vessels taken were to be the property of the captors, and their crews, their slaves; 17,000 Hessians were hired of their prince, and 25,000 English mercenaries were also ordered over. The petition of congress was rejected by the king, and not even heard by the Parliament. These acts shut the door of reconciliation.

Washington, by occupying Dorchester



Battle of Bunker Hill.

Heights, which he effected one stormy night, soon made Boston too hot for the enemy, who, on the 17th March, 1776, evacuated it. But the Americans were driven out of Canada, and lost all they had gained there.

At Fort Moultrie, the British, in June, 1776, were nobly repulsed from Charleston; on the fourth of July, Congress proclaimed its Declaration of Independence.

Lord Howe with Admiral Howe was now near New York, with thirty-five thousand of the best troops of Europe, and hoped to persuade the Americans to recede, and return to their loyalty; but his proclamations produced no effect. The Americans concentrated their troops here; a disastrous battle was fought. The sight of his slaughtered troops, and a knowledge of the discouragement likely to ensue, extort a groan from even Washington's manly breast; but his prudence did not forsake him, and he retired to Haerlem Heights, leaving the city of New York to the enemy.

Although our people were dispirited by defeat, yet were there many true and firm hearts among them, that could reëcho the

dying words of Capt. Hale, executed about this time, as a spy, by Howe: "I lament that I have but one life to lay down for my country." However dark their prospects, a people animated by such feelings were unconquerable. Though many of the soldiers, as well as citizens, deserted their country in this hour of trial, yet many also stood by her through all. Washington adopted the Fabian policy of delay, striking here and there where he felt sure of his blow, and keeping the enemy in uncertainty and unable to undertake any great enterprise. The skirmish at White Plains took place Oct. 28; Fort Washington surrendered Nov. 16; Fort Lee was evacuated Nov. 18; Washington retreated across the Delaware Nov. 28. These were the times which showed the men of '76.

Washington's little army was "unfaded amidst fatigue; unshod, while their bleeding feet were forced rapidly over frozen ground, exposed to the keen December air, almost without clothes or tents." Being joined by Lee's, Mifflin's, Gates', and Mercer's forces, Washington found himself at



Battle of Bennington.

the head of about seven thousand effective men; but the term of service of many of them was just about to expire, and he must strike some effective blow. The battles of

Trenton, Dec. 26, 27, 1776, and of Princeton, Jan. 3, 1777, show how well he used the opportunity. The "great news from the Jerseys" electrified the country with

sudden hope, and put a new aspect on our affairs. Articles of confederation were adopted Nov. 15, 1777. Never were men more wise and devoted than those of Congress, but they were without means, and had only power to recommend; they authorized a loan, and sent to France for aid; they conferred vast powers on Washington, dangerous with any other man.

The campaign of 1777 was distinguished

by the brutality of the Tories and English, who, as was said in Europe, "had revived in America the fury of the Goths, and the barbarity of the northern hordes." Franklin's wisdom and wit had enlisted France in our cause. Said Lafayette, "If your country is in extremity, now is my time to join you," and his coming diffused joy and hope.



Lafayette and Franklin.

The two objects of the British now were to take Philadelphia, and to cut off New England from the rest of the country. The well-appointed army of Burgoyne advanced victoriously from the north, and encamped at Saratoga. Our victory at Bennington had begun to turn the tide; "Beat them now, or Molly Stark's a widow!" became the watchword. The battle of Stillwater, Sept. 19, and the fierce victory of Oct. 7, were but the prelude to the catastrophe of the whole northern British army, which, hemmed in on every side, capitulated to Gates, on the 17th. But at the battle of Brandywine, Sept. 11th, after terrible carnage, the Americans were worsted; and on the 26th, the enemy took Philadelphia, then the capital. At Germantown, Washington was defeated, Oct. 4. The enemy wintered in comfort at Philadelphia; Washington's army were in huts at Valley Forge, where were renewed the sufferings of the previous winter. With-

out even straw, these patriots lay on the bare ground; nakedness, hunger, and cold soon filled the hospitals with accumulated and irremediable misery. No monument is yet erected to those who *thus* died for their country!

We can only give a catalogue of the events of the campaigns of 1778, 1779, and 1780. In that of 1778, we may mention, as among the most important events, the intrigues against Washington; the success of American privateers; the treaty with France, Feb. 6; the intrigues of the British commissioners; evacuation of Philadelphia, June 18; battle of Monmouth, 28; arrival of a French fleet; the siege of Newport; the massacre of Wyoming valley; Savannah taken, Dec. 29.

The British plan in the campaign of 1779 was to subjugate the whole south, beginning with Georgia, which was soon overrun. Of the events of this year the most noticeable

are, the horrible conduct of the tories ; American defeat, under Ashe, March 3 ; taking of Stony Point, by Wayne, a brilliant exploit, July 15 ; punishment of the savages, at Newtown, by Sullivan, Aug. 29 ; French and Americans repulsed from Savannah, Sept. 24 to Oct. 18 ; Paul Jones' naval victory, Sept. 27.

The campaign of 1780 is noted for the war in the south ; the surrender of General Lincoln and his army at Charleston, May 12 ; taking of fort Ninety-six, and of Buford's force, at Waccaw, by the British, who became masters of South Carolina ; the depreciation of the currency sanctioned by Congress ; heroism of the South Carolina women ; arrival of Lafayette ; also of a French squadron ; the exploits of the parti-

san leaders, Sumpter and Marion ; De Kalb and Gates lose the bloody battle of Camden, Aug. 16, leaving the British triumphant in the south ; Sumpter's men are surprised and defeated at Fishing Creek, Aug. 18, but Marion keeps the field, sheltering himself in the mountain fastnesses. The miserable treason of Arnold occurred in September, but he was frustrated in his endeavor to deliver up the north to the enemy, though his conduct at this time and afterwards, as a destroying ravager, rendered the country's cause more gloomy. Col. Ferguson's defeat on King's Mountain, Oct. 7, cheered the patriots somewhat, and drove Cornwallis back into South Carolina. His hour was approaching.



Burgoyne's Retreat.

Gates having been unsuccessful in the south, as well as Lincoln, he was superseded by Greene. The year 1781 began without funds in Congress to pay an army, and a victorious enemy, constantly receiving reinforcements, in the heart of the country. Jan. 1, the Pennsylvania line revolted, from sheer want, but were quieted. In this dilemma, a national bank was founded, and Robert Morris, the Washington of finance, came forward as the savior of his country. Franklin, too, was able to borrow for his country, of Holland, under the endorsement of France, and received from Louis XVI. a

gift of six million livres. These resources were carefully expended ; public confidence revived ; order and economy ruled in the place of confusion and waste. The war at the south went on with vigor ; on Jan. 17 took place the battle of the Cowpens, in which Morgan defeated the notorious Tarleton, taking five hundred prisoners ; Cornwallis chases the victor towards the Catawba, which the latter crosses, and is safe ; but he soon retreats, with Cornwallis in full pursuit, towards the Yadkin, the rising of whose waters after he had crossed again puts a barrier between him and his pursuer.

March 15 happened the battle of Guilford Court House, but Greene was defeated, though able to pursue his conqueror.

But the war was drawing to a close. Sumpter and Marion annoy the British; but the Americans are surprised and defeated at Hobkirk's Hill; Rawdon, however, evacuates Camden; the British forts Watson, Georgetown, and Motte, are taken, as well as Augusta; and Ninety-six is abandoned by the enemy. On Sept. 8 occurred the battle of Eutaw Springs, one of the most bloody and valiant of the war; — Greene was victorious, and the enemy retired to Charleston. By a series of manœuvres, Cornwallis was at last hemmed in at Yorktown. Washington, under a feint of attacking New York, had prevented Clinton from sending Cornwallis reinforcements, and himself marched with his French reinforcements from King's Bridge, near New York, directly towards Yorktown. The French fleet arrived off the Chesapeake, blocking up escape in that direction. Lafayette was already at Williamsburg, where the northern forces joined him on the 14th of September. In vain Cornwallis wrote to Clinton for relief. Oct.

6, the American army of sixteen thousand, seven thousand of whom were French, commenced their works; Oct. 14, two redoubts were carried; Oct. 16, the British sally out, but are driven back; Cornwallis tries to escape, but a storm prevents him; Oct. 17, Cornwallis, seeing his army wasting away, and no hope of escape, before noon sends a flag to treat of surrender. On the 19th, he marches out, surrendering an army of nine thousand men, sixty pieces of cannon, two frigates, and twenty transports.

The English were well tired of the war, seeing that, after all the expenses of property and life, nothing was left them, at the end of seven years, but New York, Charleston, and Savannah, and these could only be kept by strong fleets and garrisons. They were convinced, at last, that the Americans could not be conquered. In 1782, they appeared willing to give up the contest; in January, 1783, preliminary articles were signed; but it was not till Sept. 3 that the treaty was finally completed, acknowledging the Independence of the United States. Thus ended the War of the Revolution.



CONTINENTAL MONEY.

THE first settlers of this country brought with them the hard money of their native kingdoms — but finding this an insufficient medium of exchange, barter and sale, beaver skins, and wampum, and the shell-money of the Indians, were adopted to supply the deficiency. Afterwards, the different species of grain and cattle were thus appropriated.

In 1635, bullets were adopted by the authorities of Massachusetts instead of farthings, in order to keep this defensive ammunition in circulation. In 1652, a mint for silver coin was established in the same state, and the pine tree currency introduced. Two years later, we find dry fish, and even boards, used and passed from hand to hand

as cash. In 1686, the mint was suppressed by the king, and a bank established. In 1690, the government attempted to discharge the debts incurred in the expedition against Quebec, by the creation of bills of credit—the commencement of the paper system in New England. In 1714, a bank was established, and issued £100,000 in scrip, called "Merchants' Notes," which sustained a good credit. The bills of the province now began to decline, and we find people recurring to hemp, flax, and bar iron, as a medium of exchange.

On the breaking out of the Revolution, the Commonwealth was obliged to resort to the emission of bills of credit and treasury notes, and in about four years had issued more than £1,600,000 of such paper. In 1775,

the National Congress began to issue their bills of credit, well known under the name of "Continental Currency." In 1776, nearly twenty millions sterling had been issued, and as a natural consequence, their current value began to sink. In 1777, three dollars of this currency were worth one in silver; in 1778, the value of this scrip was as six to one; in 1779, as twenty-eight to one; and finally as one hundred and fifty to one. In 1781, Congress was obliged to yield to the pressure, and declared that bills of the continental currency might pass for what they would bring, and not for their nominal value. In the same year, the Bank of North America was established; and in 1786, the present currency of dollars, dimes, and cents, was adopted.



THE NORTHMEN IN AMERICA.

ONE of the most curious revelations of modern times, is that the Norwegian rovers, who had discovered Iceland and Greenland, visited the coasts of New England, and made a settlement there, many centuries

ago, and nearly five hundred years before the discovery of Columbus. The account is as follows:—

At the time we speak of, the Northmen, or inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and

Sweden, were the boldest mariners in the world. With small vessels, and without the compass, they launched forth upon the Northern Ocean, and not only discovered Iceland and Greenland, but made settlements there. A man named *Biorn*, on a voyage to Greenland, being driven to the west, discovered land; another sailor, called *Leif*, hearing of this, went in search of this unknown region, with thirty-five men. He came upon a region of snow and ice, which he named *Hellerland*. Sailing still further onward, he reached a delightful island near the continent. A German belonging to the expedition, penetrated into the country and came back announcing that he had discovered grapes. They filled their vessel with this fruit, and with timber, and naming the country *Vinland*, returned home.

The next adventurer was *Thorwald Grieson*, brother of *Leif*, who sailed for *Vinland* in 1002. He discovered some huts which had been built by *Leif*, and spent the winter in their neighborhood. In the ensuing spring, he sent a party to make discoveries to the southward. They passed a great extent of country, finding it well wooded and the coast covered with ranges of white sand. They were attacked by various parties of Indians, and in one of these encounters, *Thorwald* was mortally wounded, and was buried on a promontory in the vicinity. His men returned to *Greenland* the following year.

In 1007, *Thorfinn*, the brother of *Leif* and *Thorwald*, not discouraged by the fate of his kinsmen, fitted out a third expedition for the exploration of the newly discovered

region. It consisted of three vessels, and one hundred and sixty men; they took with them live stock and everything that was necessary to form a permanent settlement. After stopping at the various places already discovered, they voyaged further south, where they found grapes and wild grain in great abundance. In one of these favored spots, they erected houses and passed the winter. No snow fell, and their cattle pastured in the open fields. The next spring, a party of Indians approached, and seemed disposed to trade with the Northmen; they bartered furs for red cloth, and were very anxious to obtain some spears and swords, which, however, the Northmen were unwilling to sell. Later in the season, hostilities ensued, and rendered the stay of the Northmen so dangerous and difficult, that they retreated towards the north, and finally left for *Iceland*.

These voyages and many others which the Northmen made to *Vinland*, and of which the narratives are so minute and authentic as to place their truth beyond a doubt, render it almost certain that a large portion of the coast of New England was known to these navigators. By diligently examining the routes pursued by them, and by comparing the bearings and distances and general description of the territory seen by the Northmen with the actual situation of the country, we shall be struck with the extent and accuracy of their discoveries. *Hellerland* is *Newfoundland*, and the regions that they discovered to the southward were successively *Nova Scotia*, *Cape Cod*, *Martha's Vineyard*, &c.

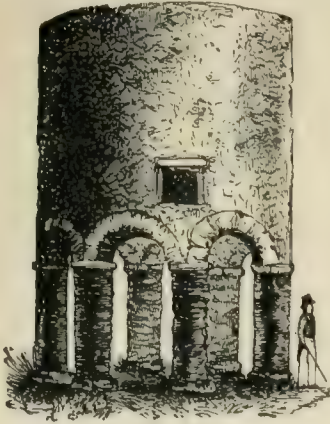


Dighton' Rock.

In Rhode Island and the neighborhood there still exist some relics of antiquity, which many persons regard as belonging to the age of the Northmen. At *Dighton*, on *Taunton river*, is the famous "writing rock," on which are sculptured various hieroglyphical characters, in attempting to explain which the ingenuity of successive ages has found ample scope. They are supposed, however, to mean in substance, as follows:

Thorfinn, with a hundred and sixty men, took possession of this spot.

This explanation coincides with the narrative found in the Icelandic Skin Books, which states what we have already related



Newport Tower.

in regard to these discoveries. At Newport is still to be seen the most remarkable architectural ruin in the United States. It consists of the lower portion of a circular tower, built of rubble stone, and resting on arches and pillars. It is evidently of high

antiquity, and is supposed to be of Scandinavian origin; no account, either written or traditional, of the date of its erection has ever been found, nor has any other structure of the kind ever been discovered in the country.

At Fall River, on Mount Hope Bay, there was discovered, in 1834, the skeleton of a man who is supposed to have been one of the settlers of Vinland. The body was brought to light by digging down a hill. On the breast was a plate of brass much corroded, but which was evidently a shield or breast plate. There were also appearances of embalment about the body. These and other relics scattered along the coast, are generally regarded as vestiges of the Scandinavian adventurers.

The more recent settlers in Vinland became involved in bloody civil contentions, which had a disastrous effect on the future prosperity of the colony. The last voyage to the continent which is mentioned in the Icelandic history, took place in the year 1347, exactly a century before the birth of Columbus. From this period, the country appears to have been abandoned by the Northmen, and Vinland became gradually forgotten.



POTOSI.

POTOSI is a city of Upper Peru, or Bolivia, situated on a declivity of the Cerro di Potosi, a mountain belonging to the Andes. It is celebrated chiefly for its silver mines; from the discovery of these mines till late in the 17th century, it was a place of some note, having over 150,000 inhabitants. Owing to the recent decay of the mines,

however, the place has fallen into neglect. The city is almost deserted, and whole suburbs, which were inhabited by Indians and miners, are now without a tenant.

The Cerro di Potosi, which is eighteen miles in circuit, and rises to the height of over 15,000 feet, is supposed to be a solid mass of the ore of the precious metal, of

which it has produced a vast quantity. Viewed from the city, it appears dyed all over with numerous tints, green, orange, yellow, gray and rose-color. The discovery of its wealth was made by an Indian, who was hunting upon its sides. Losing his foothold he caught at a shrub to save himself from falling. The shrub, yielding, laid bare the silver concealed under its root. The mines were first wrought systematically in 1545, from which year till 1803, they are said to have produced over 1,000,000,000 dollars in silver, on which a duty was paid; if we were to reckon the gold also, which was produced during the same period, and the quantity of both metals which was smuggled into circulation, without paying duty, the amount of the mineral wealth, taken from the bowels of this extraordinary mountain would be much increased. About 8000 openings have been made into the

mountain, but the number of mines wrought during the present century has rarely exceeded 100. For a long period these mines yielded 9,000,000 dollars a year, but since the beginning of the present century, whether from exhaustion, defects in the mode of working, or from want of capital, they have been nearly unproductive. The ore is pulverized in water-mills at from one to ten miles from the city, but both the operations of mining and reduction of the ore were conducted in a most bungling manner.

The country in the neighborhood of the mines is perfectly barren, and the climate disagreeable; the rays of the sun are scorchingly hot at noon, while the air is piercingly cold at night. The mint in the city of Potosi is a remarkable building, and cost over a million of dollars. In the principal square is an obelisk, sixty feet high, erected to the memory of Bolivar.



HUNTING WILD ANIMALS ON THE PAMPAS.

PAMPAS is an Indian word, and signifies a flat. It is the name applied to extensive plains in South America, the most celebrated of which are those in the neighborhood of Buenos Ayres. A part of them is covered with grass, affording excellent pasturage, and another portion forms an immense forest, which, however, is easily passable in all directions. The inhabitants of this singular region are the Gauchos, a race of Spanish origin, but who lead a life of wild independence, living on horseback, eating nothing but jerked beef, and drinking nothing but water; another tribe also frequents this country, and wages perpetual war with the Gauchos. They also live on horse-

back, and lead much the same life as the Gauchos.

On these plains it is said that several million head of cattle feed, together with about half as many horses. The method of catching them is as follows. The Gaucho, or pampas Indian, armed with his lasso, or leather strap, rides on horseback, and with great dexterity throws it round the neck of the animal he wishes to take, and by a sudden jerk throws him to the ground, and gallops off with the booty. Many thousand are annually caught in this way, and furnish the inhabitants of the country with their only means of subsistence. The wild horses are captured in the same way, and afterwards tamed and broken.



THE DEAD SEA.

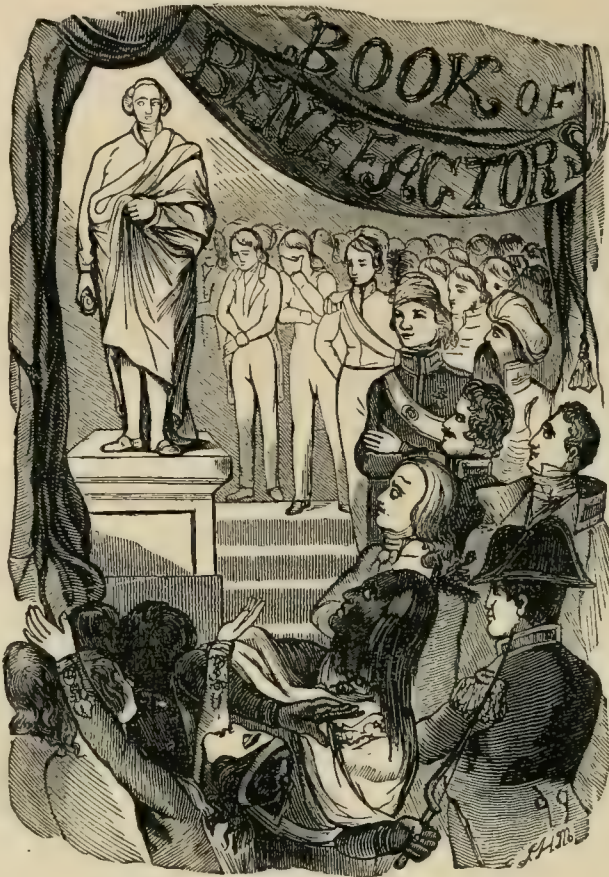
THE Dead Sea, situated in Ancient Palestine, between Judea and Arabia, is a salt lake, remarkable for being fourteen hundred feet below the level of the Mediterranean. Its waters are bitter and destitute of fish. No bird frequents its bosom or its shores. All around is still, desolate, and barren. Precipitous crags, of frowning grandeur, surround and hang over it; the shadow of death seems to rest upon it. Occasionally, the traveller meets with patches of verdure, or a fresh water stream, where reeds and palms, and good drinking water, may be found. A solemn devastation, however, is the characteristic feature of its scenery.

This remarkable sea is about forty-four miles long, and eleven broad. From its great depth, and the concentration of heat over it, increased by the glare from its whitish and naked borders, it has been compared to a seething cauldron. The bottom is of mud, slime or salt crystals. The water is transparent and surprisingly buoyant. We gather the following extraordinary facts upon this subject from a writer belonging to the expedition sent to this sea in 1848, by the U. States government. A horse led into the water had his legs lifted to the surface, and was thrown over upon his side. The extreme density of the water was further proved, not only by the boat's drawing less water than when floating on the Jordan, but by the solid thumping of the waves, in a storm, against the boats. This the iron boat was able to bear; but the copper one was so battered as to require repair, and a

wooden one would probably have been destroyed.

On bathing in the sea, the skin becomes covered with an oily substance which occasions a prickly sensation, till washed off in fresh water. The atmosphere over the sea is completely saturated with salt; the stones on the beach are incrustated with it, and fresh foot-prints in the sand become incrustated with it in the course of an hour. The fish that the fresh and salt streams bring into the sea, are suffocated on coming into its waters, and float dead upon its surface. Unwholesome fogs envelop its shores, and clots of asphaltus continually rise from the bottom.

At the extreme south point of the Dead Sea is a ridge of rock salt, nearly one hundred and fifty feet high, and five miles long. Here is found what the Arabs traditionally deem to be Lot's wife, transformed into a pillar of salt. It is a column of crystallized rock salt, sixty feet high and thirteen in diameter. All, however, that we know of the disaster of Lot's wife, is from the sacred record, which simply states that "she became a pillar of salt." This may be explained by supposing a shower of nitro-sulphurous particles from the atmosphere, and a setting on fire of the hollow asphaltic plain, with its cities built of combustible bitumen, and that being bewildered and suffocated by her too long delay, in attempting to return, the unfortunate woman became an incrustated salso-bituminous heap or pillar — a *monument of salt*, or lasting memorial of the effects of disobedience.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

THIS great and good man — whose memory is venerated by the great and the good of all lands — was born on the 22d of Feb., 1732, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia. He was the eldest of six children, having three brothers and two sisters. His father dying while he was yet young, the care of a large family devolved upon his mother, a woman of strong mind, who devoted her whole energies to the rearing of her children. George received a good English education, and at an early age began to develop the qualities and characteristics which afterwards so distinguished him. At school, he was always made umpire in disputes between his companions, and was always chosen commander of the mimic military companies in the school-yard. He was a close student of geometry, and seemed to delight in pursuing the mazes of a legal investigation.

At the age of nineteen he was appointed one of the adjutant-generals of the state, but sickness in his family prevented him from holding the office long. In the year 1753, he was sent by the governor of the colony of Virginia on a mission of great importance to the governor of Fort Du Quesne, a French post, on the site of the present city of Pittsburg. The journey was dangerous, and the errand difficult, but he performed it to the satisfaction of his employers, and received the public thanks of the Assembly of Virginia. During the two following years he served successfully against the French and Indians, and his name rapidly became known and his efforts appreciated throughout the country. In 1755, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces, which office he held for two years, when he resigned his commission, and retired to private life. He married at

the age of twenty-seven, and lived in retirement and pursuing the occupation of husbandry for fifteen years.

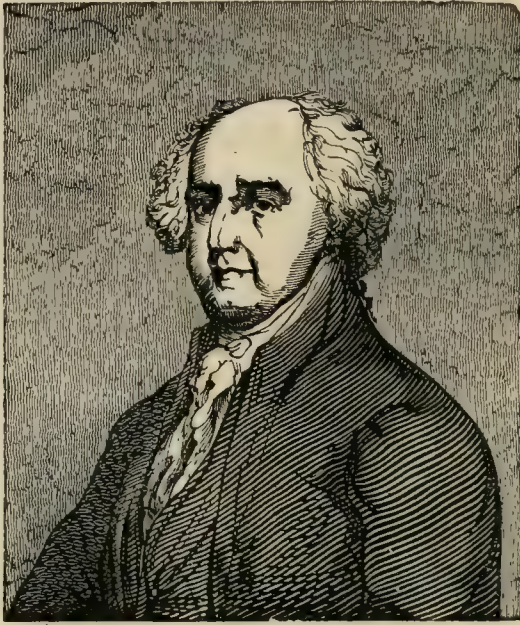
In 1774, a tempest of opposition in America was raised by the tyrannical acts of the British Parliament, among which was the Boston Port Bill; out of this spirit of resistance, emanated the first General Congress, and Washington was chosen one of the deputies from Virginia. He rendered great services on all subjects relating to military affairs. The following year he was placed, by the unanimous call of the country, at the head of the continental army. He immediately proceeded to Cambridge, and took command of the forces. On the 17th of March, 1776, he drove the British from Boston, which they had made their stronghold, and thus the revolutionary war was fairly commenced. July 4th, on the same year, congress declared the independence of the country, and early the following year, its independence was acknowledged by France. We have not space to follow in detail the various events of this war, the sufferings and victories of the army, and the exploits of its immortal chief.

On the cessation of active hostilities in 1782, the discontent which had long been gathering in the army, was on the point of bursting forth. For a long time the soldiers had received no pay; the treasury was impoverished by the unceasing levies of an eight years' war, and the disbanding of the army was looked upon as an event full of perils. Washington was still at the height of popularity, both with his men and in the country at large, and in this condition of things, received the offer of the crown of the kingdom, if he would consent to the establishment of monarchy, and to become king. The patriot indignantly refused, sternly rebuking the individual from whom the offer came. Towards the close

of the year 1783, he made his farewell address to the army, and on the 23d of Dec., resigned his commission to congress at Annapolis.

The country still, however, was in a distracted state, and the articles of confederation, which had been drawn up previous to the war, were felt to be inefficient, and the necessity was obvious of creating some stronger bond of union between the several states. Conventions for this purpose were held in 1786 and '87, and on Sept. 17th of the latter year the present constitution was adopted. Under this, electors of president were chosen, and the unanimous vote of the electoral college fell upon Washington, early in the year 1789. From Mount Vernon to New York, the then seat of government, his progress was a continued march of triumph, such was his hold upon the hearts of the people, and so great was their confidence in his ability and integrity.

We cannot follow Washington through the various events of the eight years of his service as president; for he was elected unanimously to a second term, and reinaugurated in 1793. His second administration closed on the 4th of March, 1797, and after the inauguration of Mr. Adams, his successor, he returned to Mount Vernon, where he desired to pass the rest of his days in retirement. He was soon after reappointed commander-in-chief of the American forces, the attitude of France appearing belligerent and threatening. But he never again took the field. On the 13th of Dec., 1799, while riding about his estate, he was exposed to a shower of rain, which brought on his last illness. Thirty hours after, he calmly expired, at the age of 67. A whole nation went into mourning, and grief pervaded the hearts of a whole people. *The Father of his Country* was no more!



JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS, the first vice-president and second president of the United States, was a native of the town of Braintree, in Massachusetts, being born the 30th of Oct., 1735. He entered Harvard College, where he graduated in 1755. He chose the law as a profession, and very soon became favorably known. He was chosen representative for Boston in the Massachusetts Assembly, in 1770, the year of the "Boston Massacre." Four years after, he was elected member of the *Continental Congress*, and was one of the most active men of that body. He advised the appointment of Washington, as commander-in-chief, and stood side by side with Patrick Henry and others, in boldly advocating a declaration of independence. He was member of the committee which reported the famous draft of that instrument, and he subsequently signed it.

In December, 1777, Mr. Adams was appointed as commissioner to the court of France; he asked and obtained his recall in 1779. He then drafted the Massachu-

setts Constitution, being on a committee for that purpose. He was sent to Europe in 1780, as minister plenipotentiary for negotiating a peace with Great Britain. He negotiated with Holland, a loan of three millions of dollars, and a treaty of amity and commerce with that power. In 1781, he was associated with Jay, Franklin, and Jefferson, for the purpose of concluding treaties of peace with the European powers, and in 1783, signed a definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain. In January, 1785, he was appointed minister to the court of Great Britain, in which office he remained till 1788. The same year he was chosen vice-president of the United States, on the ticket with Washington, and was reelected in 1792. In 1797, he became president, Thomas Jefferson being vice-president. In 1801, he retired from public life, and never again appeared actively in the political field. He died on the 4th of July, 1826, on the semi-centennial anniversary of signing the Declaration of Independence.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

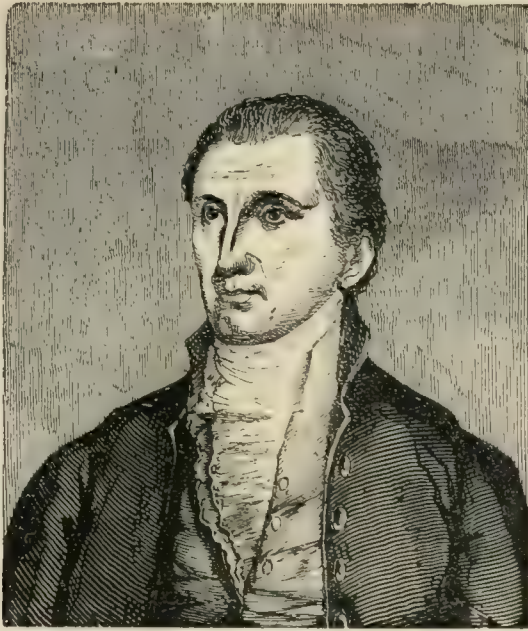
THE subject of the present sketch was born on the 13th of April, 1743, in Albemarle county, Virginia. He was well educated, paying particular attention to mathematics and philosophy; and, later in life, took up the study of the law. He was elected to the Virginia Legislature in 1769, in which body he continued to serve till elected to the Continental Congress in 1775. He was placed upon the committee appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence, and though the youngest of the members, he was commissioned by the others to draught it, and the result was, with a few verbal alterations, the instrument so well known at the present day. He soon resigned his seat in congress, being desirous of serving his own state, and returned to Virginia. He was busily em-

ployed, for two years, on a commission for revising the laws of Virginia. In 1779, he succeeded Patrick Henry as governor of Virginia. From 1784 to '89, he was minister at the French court, and on his return was offered a seat in the cabinet as secretary of state. In this capacity he served for five years, and resigned in 1793, owing to difference of sentiment with Washington on the revolution in France. In 1796, he was the opponent of Mr. Adams, as candidate for president, but was unsuccessful; in 1800, being again nominated, he was elected, and in 1804 reelected. He retired from public life in 1809, having done much for the future prosperity of the country. He died, like John Adams, on the 4th of July, on the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.



JAMES MADISON.

JAMES MADISON, immediate successor of Mr. Jefferson, and fourth president of the United States, was born in Virginia, in 1751. He received a common school education, and was subsequently fitted for college, and in 1771, graduated at Princeton, New Jersey. He was elected member of the General Assembly of Virginia in 1776, and represented that state in the Continental Congress, from 1779 to '84. Two years after, he was sent to a convention which met in Philadelphia, for the purpose of revising the articles of confederation, which, as we have said in the life of Washington, were finally superseded by the constitution of the United States. During the whole of Washington's administration, he served in the councils of the nation, as representative for Virginia. Under Jefferson, in 1801, he became secretary of state, in which capacity he served eight years. He succeeded Mr. Jefferson as president, and was inaugurated in March, 1809. The second war with Great Britain broke out during his administration, and his determination to prosecute it vigorously to the end, if inevitable, procured him a reelection, and he was inaugurated in his second term of service in 1813. On the 3d of June, 1812, a majority of the committee on foreign affairs reported in favor of a declaration of war, and the measure was soon after adopted by the House and Senate, and on the 18th of the same month, Mr Madison signed the instrument, and the war followed, which was concluded three years after by the treaty of Ghent, and by the battle of New Orleans. A slight broil with the Dey of Algiers followed close on the heels of this war, which, however, was soon settled by a squadron under Commodore Decatur. During the eight years' service of Mr. Madison, Louisiana and Indiana were admitted into the Union, and the territory of Missouri was organized. His public life closed with his administration, and on the 28th of June, 1836, he ended his mortal career, at the age of eighty-five years.



JAMES MONROE.

JAMES MONROE was born in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia, in 1759. He was the fourth president, out of five, who claimed Virginia as their birth-place. His early youth was passed in the exciting scenes which preceded the Declaration of Independence, and when he left college, at the age of eighteen years, he hastened to Washington's head-quarters, and joined the continental army. He subsequently turned his attention to the law, the study of which he commenced under Mr. Jefferson. In 1782, he was elected a member of the Virginia Legislature, and the following year, was sent as delegate to the Continental Congress. He now successively filled various offices, as senator at Washington, from 1789 to 1794; minister to France from 1794 to 1796; governor of Virginia from 1799 to 1802; envoy extraordinary to France for the cession and purchase of Louisiana, and commissioner to Spain for the settlement of boundary disputes with that power.

In 1811, he was again elected governor of Virginia, but was almost immediately appointed secretary of state by Madison, which office he continued to hold till the expiration of Madison's second term, when he succeeded him, being inaugurated March, 1817. During his administration, Illinois, Mississippi, Michigan, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri, were admitted into the Union. He was reelected president with great unanimity in 1820. Two years after, the U. States acknowledged the independence of Mexico and five Spanish provinces of South America. An expedition was soon after fitted out, under Com. Porter, against the pirates in the West Indies. In 1824, Lafayette visited the country as the guest of the nation. Mr. Monroe retired from the president's chair in March, 1825, after eight years' harmonious and prosperous administration of the government. Like John Adams and Jefferson, he died on the national anniversary — the 4th of July, 1831.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

THE subject of the present memoir was born in Quincy, Massachusetts, at the family mansion of his father, on the 11th of July, 1767. During his youth, he accom-

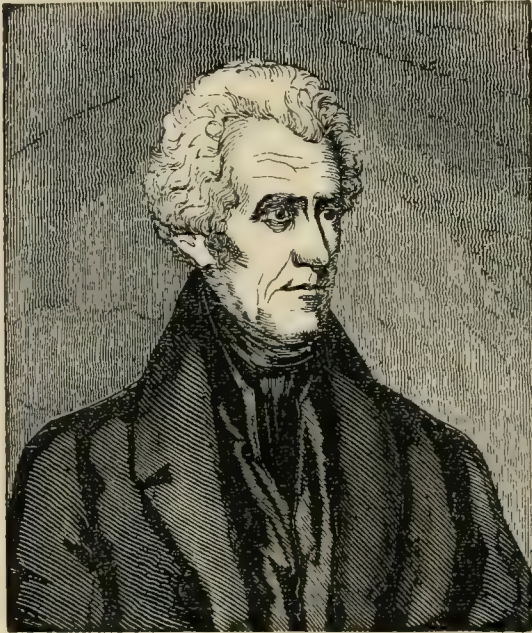
panied his father to the various posts of honor and trust to which he was sent, both at home and abroad; at the age of eleven years, he went with him to France, where

he spent some time : he afterwards went to school in Paris, and subsequently in Amsterdam and Leyden. At the age of fourteen, he went to Russia, as private secretary to Mr. Francis Dana. Returning home, however, he entered Harvard University, where he graduated in 1787.

He now entered public life as an essayist upon subjects of political interest — and his merit was soon appreciated by Washington. When still very young, he was appointed resident minister at the Netherlands, and during his father's administration, minister to Berlin. Returning home in 1801, he was successively elected to the Senate of Massachusetts, and to the United States Senate, where he remained till 1806. In 1809, Madison appointed him minister plenipotentiary to the court of Russia, where he was received with great kindness and favor by the Emperor Alexander. In 1814, he

was placed at the head of the commission which met at Ghent, to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain. From 1815 to '17, he was minister at the court of St. James under Madison, and during Monroe's eight years' administration he served his country as secretary of state.

In 1824, the people failing to make an election of president, the choice fell upon the House, and Mr. Adams was chosen. His administration was one of unbroken tranquillity and peace. It was at this time, however, that party lines began to be drawn between the different opinions which had lately sprung up in the country. As early as 1825, Gen. Jackson was nominated as candidate for the ensuing presidential election. Mr. Adams retired from the presidency in 1829. In 1830, he took his seat in Congress to represent the district in which he lived, and there remained till his death, Feb. 23, 1848.



ANDREW JACKSON.

ANDREW JACKSON, seventh president of the United States, was born of Irish parents, who emigrated to America, and settled in South Carolina in 1765: two years after, on the 15th of March, the subject of this sketch was born. He was destined to be a preacher in the Presbyterian church, and his

early studies were commenced in this view. The revolution breaking out soon afterwards, his military zeal received an impetus, which materially changed his future career. He became a volunteer in 1780, and served under Gen. Sumter. In this expedition, his brother was killed, and his mother soon

after died, leaving Andrew the only survivor of the Jackson family who came to America. In 1784, he commenced the study of the law in North Carolina, and was subsequently appointed solicitor for that part of the state known as Tennessee. In 1795, he was chosen member of the convention for framing a constitution for the state of Tennessee, and became its first representative in Congress in 1796. One year after he was made senator, — and always acted with the democratic party in opposition to the administration of Washington and Adams. In 1812, he entered the army, and fought several severe battles with the Indians. In Jan. 1815, his great battle with the British, at New Orleans, gained him great popularity and favor.

After the close of the war, he served the country in various capacities — as governor

of Florida, and as U. States senator from Tennessee. In 1824, he was one of the five candidates for president, out of whom Mr. Adams was chosen. In 1828, he was elevated to that rank by a majority of more than two to one over Mr. Adams. His administration, of eight years' duration, was an extremely eventful one. But our limits forbid us from entering into detail. His energy, during the nullification question in South Carolina, saved the country from the dissolution which seemed near at hand. He settled the dispute as to the French claim, in 1836, to the general satisfaction. He vetoed the rechartering of the U. States Bank, and in 1836 this institution ceased to exist. He was succeeded by Martin Van Buren in 1837 — and on retiring from public life, published a farewell address. He died in 1845, in the 79th year of his age.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, the first of the presidents of the United States who was not descended from a British ancestry, was born in Columbia county, N. York, of a Dutch family, in Dec., 1782. His early studies were such as would fit him for practice at the bar, the law being the profession for which he was intended. He was admitted to practice in 1803, and became rapidly known and appreciated. In 1808, he was appointed surrogate of Columbia county; in 1812, was elected to the state senate, and in 1815, he received the appointment of attorney-general of the state. Six years afterwards, he was elected to the senate of the United States, and in 1827, his commission was renewed for six years. The next year, however, he was chosen governor of the state, and one year later, became General Jackson's secretary of state. In 1831, he was appointed minister to Great Britain, but the nomination not being ratified by the senate, he was recalled. He was elected vice-president of the United States in the

ensuing year, and in 1836, was elected president.

In 1836-7, a commercial panic spread over the country from the effects of the expansion of paper currency; the president convened an extra session of congress, and in his message proposed what was called the sub-treasury scheme. It met with great opposition, and was not finally passed till 1840. In 1838, the president was called upon to check the Americans from taking any active part in the disturbances in Canada, in favor of whose independence their sympathies were strongly excited. In 1839, Mr. Van Buren visited the state of New York, and was received with enthusiasm and respect by all political parties. He was renominated in 1840, but failed in his election, and was succeeded by Gen. Harrison in 1841. Since that period Mr. Van Buren has resided upon his estate at Kinderhook, his birth-place. In 1848, he was the candidate of the *Free Soil* party for the presidency, but did not receive a single electoral vote.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

THE subject of this memoir was born in Virginia, in the vicinity of Richmond, on the 9th of Feb., 1773. He went to Philadelphia, after graduating at Hampden Sydney, for the purpose of studying medicine. His ardor for this pursuit being damped by

the death of his father, he determined to join the army, and obtained an ensign's commission from Washington; he departed for the western wilderness to engage in the Indian wars of that region. He was made successively aid to Gen. Wayne, cap-

tain and commander of Fort Washington. He soon after resigned his military commission and entered upon civil duties as secretary of the North-western Territory. In 1799, he was sent to Washington as the first delegate from this territory, a tract of land embracing the present states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, and Wisconsin. He was subsequently appointed governor of the Territory of Indiana. The war of 1812 soon breaking out, he took the field in person, and obtained a decisive victory over the Indians at Tippecanoe. On the surrender of Hull, he was made major-general in the army of the United States. He resigned his commission in 1814, in consequence of some misunderstanding with

the secretary of war. He retired to his farm at North Bend, and was successively called upon to fill various offices of public trust. In 1824, he was sent to the Senate at Washington, and in 1828 was made minister to the republic of Colombia, from whence Gen. Jackson recalled him. He again returned to his estate in Ohio, but in 1840, was called to the office of president of the United States. The majority by which he was elected was one of the largest ever given to any candidate. He was inaugurated the 4th of March, 1841. He only survived his elevation one month, however,—for he died on the 4th of April, at the age of 68 years.



JOHN TYLER.

THE family of John Tyler, descended from some of the earliest settlers of Virginia, was distinguished during the revolution for its attachment to the patriotic cause. His father was the intimate friend of Jefferson, Patrick Henry and other leading men, and held some of the highest offices in the state, among which was that of governor of Virginia. John was born on the 19th of March, 1790. He entered William and Mary College at the age of twelve years, and graduated with honor. He now applied himself

to the study of the law, and being admitted to the bar, was highly successful in its practice. At the age of 21, he was elected to the Virginia Legislature, where he remained five years. In 1816, he was elected to Congress, in which body he served nearly two terms, but ill health forced him to retire to his estate in the country. He did not remain long in private life, however. He was elected to the Virginia Legislature, in 1813; to the governorship of that state in 1815; to the senate of the United States

in 1817; was reelected to that body in 1833, but resigned his seat in 1836. In 1839, he was chosen vice-president of the convention that met at Harrisburg to nominate candidates for president and vice-president, and strongly supported Mr. Clay for the presidency. Gen. Harrison and Mr. Tyler were nominated for the two offices, and, in 1840, were both elected.

Harrison dying in April, 1841, Mr. Tyler became president, and took the reins of government. He retained Harrison's cabinet in office. In August and September, 1842, he vetoed the two bills sent to him for the creation of a fiscal agent for the government. In the same year, the important

question of the north-eastern boundary was settled, and the treaty with Great Britain was ratified. A treaty for the annexation of Texas was concluded at Washington in April, 1844, but was rejected by the Senate in June. A joint resolution for the consummation of this project was passed in the House in Jan., 1845, and by the Senate on the 1st of March. Two days before the expiration of his term, the president signed it, and it became a law. The following winter, Generals Houston and Rusk took their seats in the U. States Senate, from the state of Texas. Mr. Tyler was succeeded by Mr. Polk, in March, 1845.

JAMES KNOX POLK.

JAMES K. POLK was born in North Carolina, on the 2d of Nov., 1795. Some ten years after, his father removed his family to the state of Tennessee, where James, after receiving a good English education, entered a mercantile house. This pursuit not according with his taste, he entered the University of North Carolina, with a view to the study of the law. He was distinguished as a scholar, and in 1818, at the age of twenty-three, he graduated with the highest honors. He was admitted to the bar in 1820, was elected to the Legislature of Tennessee in 1823, and to the House of Representatives at Washington in 1825. He served as representative during fourteen years, in the last five of which he discharged the duties of speaker. In 1839, he was elected governor of Tennessee. In 1841 and '43, he was again candidate for that office, but was defeated on both occasions. In May, 1844, the democratic convention at Baltimore nominated him for president of the U. States; he was elected by a majority of sixty-five over Mr. Clay, and was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1845.

The war with Mexico was the principal event of Mr. Polk's administration. It resulted, as is well known, from the annexation of Texas to the United States. Mexico never having acknowledged the independence of Texas, and still claiming it as an integral part of her dominions, recalled her minister from Washington, and denounced the act as a breach of faith. War ensued, and continued till the treaty of 1848. By this instrument, the territory of the United States received a large addition — the tracts of land known as New Mexico and Upper California, as well as the disputed territory in Texas, which was confirmed to us. The tariff of 1846 was likewise passed during Mr. Polk's administration.

Mr. Polk was not a candidate for reelection. He was succeeded, in 1849, by Gen. Taylor, who is now (1849) incumbent of that office. Mr. Polk left W. in March, and retired to his residence at Nashville, where he died, after a short illness, on the 17th of June.



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, the twelfth and present President of the United States, was born in the year 1790, in Orange county, Virginia. While, however, he was yet an infant, his father removed to Kentucky. Here he received such an education as circumstances admitted and was soon made a lieutenant in the United States army, his taste taking a decided turn for military pursuits. During three years he was employed on the western frontiers, fighting the Indians, and protecting the settlers. On the breaking out of the war of 1812, he was in command of Fort Harrison, with the grade of captain. With but fifteen men in his command, he defended the fort until relief arrived under Gen. Hopkins. He was promoted to the rank of major by President Madison. During the remainder of the war of 1812, he served in the West, but without any remarkable opportunities of distinguishing himself. He took a prominent part in the war against Black Hawk, and in other Indian contests. While Jackson was president, he received the rank of colonel. Soon after, he was ordered to Florida, to take part in the Seminole war. In December, 1837, he fought and won the celebrated battle of Okeechobee. In this battle the Americans lost one hundred and thirty-eight men, upwards of one eighth of the number engaged. The manner in which this battle was conducted, the disposition of the American troops, the entire bearing and action of Gen. Taylor, has been highly praised by military men.

In 1840, Gen. Taylor was placed in command of the Southern Department, his headquarters being at Fort Jesup, in Louisiana. From this period till the breaking out of the Mexican war, in 1845, but little occurred in the life of Gen. Taylor, of a sufficiently prominent nature to deserve mention here. In the summer of 1845, Gen. Taylor was placed at the head of the *Army of Occupation*, the force concentrated at Corpus Christi, to resist any overt acts on the part of Mexico, which might result from her dissatisfaction at the admission of Texas into the Union. He remained here seven months; when the camp was broken up, and the force reached the left bank of the Rio Grande on the 28th of March. Our space will not allow us to go into detail at this point; events followed with such rapidity, and in such quick succession, that volumes will be required to write the Mexican war. We can only say that from this position resulted the battle of Palo Alto, on the 8th of May, and that of Resaca de la Palma on the 9th. In this latter action, fifteen hundred Americans defeated six thousand Mexicans. The United States government, seeing the necessity of reinforcing Gen. Taylor, made a call for volunteers, which was responded to with such eagerness on the part of the people, that Gen. Taylor, about a month after his victories, found himself at the head of eight thousand men, ready for field action, besides about twelve hundred left in garrison. On the 19th of September, about six thousand Americans arrived before Monterey, a post

which the Mexicans had been engaged in fortifying and defending by every means in their power. The siege of Monterey commenced on the 21st of September, and lasted three days; on the 24th, the city capitulated; the enemy's force were allowed to retire, but were compelled to give up most of their artillery and munitions of war.

Soon after this victory, the U. S. government determined to strike a decisive blow at the enemy on the side of Vera Cruz, and if successful there, to march upon the capital. This enterprise was entrusted to Gen. Scott, and, as is well known, was triumphantly successful. To accomplish it, however, Gen. Taylor was deprived of a large part of his best soldiers, and was left with but six thousand men in all, mostly volunteers. While still at Monterey, he learned that Santa Anna was advancing upon him with twenty thousand men. He determined to give him battle with his diminished force, and made choice of the position of Buena Vista. This battle was fought on the 22d and 23d of February, during which the American army were twice on the verge of

defeat. They recovered their losses, and on the night of the 23d were masters of one of the most obstinately contested fields ever fought. Less than five thousand men, mostly volunteers, who had never seen action, and were but poorly instructed in the arts of warfare, contended successfully against the flower of the Mexican army, twenty thousand strong, led by Santa Anna in person. This fourth victory raised Gen. Taylor to the summit of renown, and gave him a place in the hearts of the people, held by no one since Washington.

The seat of active operations was now transferred to the valley of Mexico, where another series of brilliant actions was performed by the army under General Scott. Gen. Taylor ceased to be actively employed, and at the close of the war, which followed the capture of the city of Mexico, he returned to Louisiana. On the seventh of November, 1848, the people elected him to the presidency of the United States, to which office he was inaugurated on the fifth of March, 1849.



SHIPWRECKS.

THERE are no incidents which present more affecting details than disasters at sea. A volume of the deepest interest might be compiled from the records of shipwrecks.

But of all the events of this kind, that which we are to notice is one of the most

painful. In the year 1815, the colony of Senegal, on the coast of Africa, was ceded by the English to the French, from whom it had been originally captured; as soon after as the state of affairs would permit, a squadron was sent to the colony by the

French government, to convey provisions and stores to the inhabitants, and to transport thither the newly appointed officer of the settlement. The squadron consisted of four vessels, — the *Medusa*, a frigate of forty-four guns, and three smaller vessels, the whole carrying six hundred individuals, of whom four hundred were on board the *Medusa*. The ships comprising the expedition sailed in company for several days, when they separated, from the changeableness of the wind and their different sailing qualities. All went well on board the *Medusa* for some time, when the incapacity and ignorance of the captain began to be painfully evident. As they neared the tropics, he resigned the direction of the ship to a stranger named Richfort, who steered the vessel in whatever direction he pleased, and deliberately disobeyed the written instructions of the government in regard to the course of the vessel. The protestations of the passengers were of no avail, and the captain continued in his fatal infatuation. The sea now assumed a sandy color, and the ship was found to be in eighteen fathoms water. The captain was now thoroughly frightened, and ordered the course of the ship to be changed. It was too late. The lead showed six fathoms water, and the next instant the frigate touched the sandy bottom, and struck with a strong concussion.

The most frightful scene ensued, which lasted days and nights. The execration of the passengers, the oaths, the blasphemy of the terrified crew, the wretched helplessness of the infatuated captain, the despair and desolation of the women and children, and what is more, the intoxication and uproarious merriment of some fifty drunken soldiers, served to form a combination of horrors unequalled in the annals of shipwreck and marine disasters. The most foolish and useless attempts were made to get the ship off; only half measures were taken, and the result was that the unfortunate frigate sunk deeper and deeper into the sand, beyond the power of human aid to relieve her.

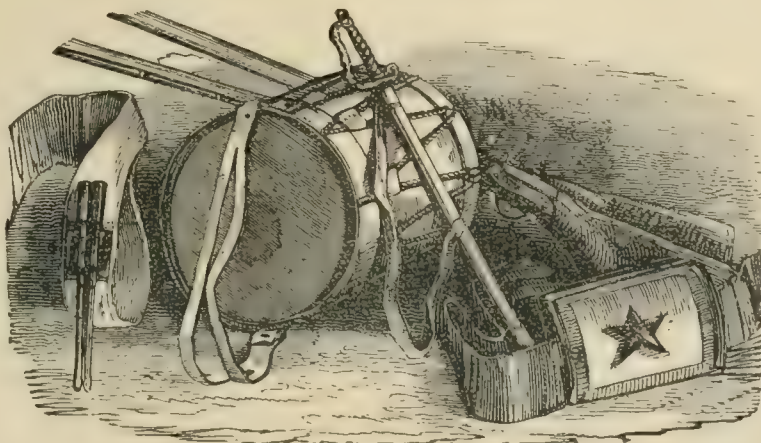
After forty-eight hours of doubt and hesitation, it was concluded to construct a raft capable of receiving 150 persons, the six boats being only able to carry 250. It was arranged that the raft should be attached to the boats by means of ropes, and be towed by them to the nearest land, which was supposed to be about forty-five miles off. The scene of embarking on board these frail structures beggars description. Every one

wished a place in the boats, and to prevent their being overloaded and sunk, officers placed themselves at the bulwarks, with loaded pistols, and threatened to fire on every one who refused to take the place assigned him. The raft received thus its living freight, and the whole expedition prepared to start. As they left the ship, it was found that about twenty-five persons were still upon the wreck, including a family of nine persons; the father of this family seized some muskets upon the deck, and menaced with certain death the persons in one of the boats in which his family had been promised places. In this way they were saved from their impending fate. The boats towed the raft some distance, when, as if actuated by one common impulse, they successively, one after the other, cut the rope which held them to the raft, and rowing quickly away, as if to stifle the voice of conscience, left the raft and the 150 souls on board to their fate. The history of navigation presents no other such case of iniquity as this; it must forever stand unparalleled for heartless inhumanity. The raft was left, like a log upon the waters, without compass, or capability of motion, with twenty-five pounds of water-soaked biscuit, and a cask or two of wine, and as many of water. Wild cries rent the air, cries for justice — for help, for compassion — cries of despair, vengeance and contempt — all were alike unheeded, and the boats and their crews gradually disappeared.

The sufferings of the unhappy wretches left upon the raft were of the most heart-rending nature. For twelve days, they endured the horrors of starvation, of thirst, of cold, and of heat; fighting, murder, drowning, intoxication, and drunken revelry, went on in their midst; women were thrown ruthlessly overboard, mutiny and violence occurred day and night — so that either from the effects of suffering, or from being drowned, or in some other way killed, their number diminished some ten or twenty every day. Two officers seem to have taken command of the raft, and to have managed it as well as possible, under the circumstances. They and the better disposed portion of the sailors and soldiers fought with the mutineers, distributed the rations of wine, for the biscuit had long ago given out, and consoled and encouraged as best they might their unhappy fellow-sufferers. The mutineers were overcome by the wine they drank, little as they were able to get, and a sort of delirium ensued; they were in this state three successive nights, and sanguinary

battles were fought on this floating tomb from sunset to sunrise. In the morning it was covered with the bodies of the dead and dying. The twelfth day after they were deserted by the boats, and the day of their final rescue, their number was reduced to fifteen — 135 out of 150 had died or been killed. The survivors were saved by the *Argus*, a brig forming part of the original squadron; she had arrived safely at Senegal, and had returned in search of the sufferers on the raft. The six boats had safely reached the shore; and of the seventeen in-

dividuals left on board the wreck, four, the only survivors, were taken off fifty-two days after the disaster. The whole affair is the most dreadful as well as the most disgraceful in navy annals; it excited horror and disgust throughout France, and every effort was made to prevent the publication of the details, by Corréard, first captain of the raft. Never did any shipwreck present such a series of blunders, such want of concert and management, or such a deficiency of the common feelings of humanity.



WAR OF 1812 WITH ENGLAND.

IN 1807, Great Britain and France being at war with each other, the dispute drew to one side or the other most of the European powers; and though the government of the United States was determined to keep at peace with all the world, if possible, there were many difficulties in the way of maintaining a strict neutrality. Great Britain claimed the right of taking her own native-born subjects where she could find them. Relying upon the strength of her navy, many American vessels were searched in this way, and British sailors, naturalized as Americans, and many native-born Americans, were from time to time seized and impressed into the British service. As if to continue and aggravate this grievance, Great Britain refused to listen to any application for redress. Another difficulty was caused by an order in council issued in May, 1806, by which the English cabinet declared all the ports and rivers from the Elbe, in

Germany, to Brest, in France, in a state of blockade; consequently, American vessels trading to any of these ports were liable to be seized and condemned. Still later, in 1807, another order in council was issued, forbidding all the coasting trade with France on penalty of capture and condemnation.

Such was the state of things in 1807, when the attack on the *Chesapeake* occurred; the controversy which followed was the prelude to that state of feeling which led to the war of 1812. Five men deserted from the British frigate *Melampus*, which was lying in Hampton Roads, Norfolk, and three of them joined the American frigate *Chesapeake*, then preparing for sea. Though subsequently proved that they were American citizens, the British consul applied for their delivery to the English captain. They were not given up, and in June the *Chesapeake* started on her voyage to the Mediterranean. She was intercepted at Hampton

Roads, by a British fleet, when a colloquy ensued, and the American commander refusing to allow a search to be made, and refusing to give up any of his crew, the ship was fired upon, and three of her men killed and eighteen wounded. Being unprepared for action, she could make no resistance, and finally surrendered. A search was made by the British captain, the three men, together with another claimed as a British subject, were taken on board the *Melampus*. The Chesapeake, being much injured, returned to Norfolk.

This affair led to much ill feeling on the part of the Americans, and to discussion and diplomacy on the part of the two cabinets; negotiations were several times attempted, but always failed of success. Great Britain and France still continued at war, and by their orders and decrees and impressments and seizures were breaking in upon all former treaties, especially those with the United States. The prospect that the latter government would be able to keep out of difficulty was growing less and less every day; decrees, prohibitions, and proclamations followed each other in quick succession. In May, 1811, an unprovoked attack was made upon the U. States frigate *President*, by the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, in which the latter was signally

worsted. Some months later, the attack on the Chesapeake was acknowledged by Mr. Foster, the British envoy, to be unauthorized, and negotiation followed, by which the affair was adjusted to the satisfaction of both parties. This, however, did not remove the difficulties with Great Britain. That government still insisted on the right of impressment, as it was called; the blockade of her enemies' ports was very injurious to the interests of the U. States, and her orders in council had not been annulled. On the 3d of April, 1812, the president, Mr. Madison, with the recommendation of congress, laid an embargo on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the U. States. This was the prelude to war, which was declared on the 18th of June.

The country was poorly prepared for war, and the news was received with murmurings in some quarters, and with open violence in others. Massachusetts, R. Island, and Connecticut, refused to furnish men from the militia of their states except for the defence of their seaboard. The few troops already in service, and those who enlisted, immediately were sent to the north-west, and placed under Gen. Hull. A most disgraceful surrender soon followed, by which Detroit, the neighboring forts and garrisons, together with the army, fell into the hands



Queenstown.

of the British. This dispiriting circumstance, at the outset of the war, cast a gloom over the whole country. Gen. Hull was tried for treason, cowardice and officer-

like conduct; was convicted on the last two charges, and sentenced to death, but on account of his age was pardoned by the president.

The war, which began so unhappily on the land, was brilliantly and successfully prosecuted at sea. The U. States possessed but seventeen vessels of war on the open seas, while the naval power of Great Britain consisted of from eight hundred to one thousand ships; yet the overwhelming force of the so-called mistress of the ocean was effectually humbled by a power whose naval equipments she could not help despising for their seeming inefficiency. The British sloop of war *Alert* was taken by the *Essex*, Captain Porter, after an action of only eight minutes. The *Guerriere*, thirty-eight guns, Captain Dacres, was captured and sunk by the *Constitution*, after an action of two hours. The *Constitution* was not at all injured, and was ready for another action the very next day. These brilliant events at sea atoned in some measure for the disgraceful nature of the land service, and served to encourage the navy in its contest

with the greatest naval power in the world. Where least was expected, the most heroic bravery and the most unprecedented skill were manifested. On the 18th of October, the American sloop *Wasp*, eighteen guns, fell in with the British sloop *Frolic*, of about the same force, and captured her after an obstinate action of an hour and a half. The *Wasp* had ten men killed and wounded, while the loss of the *Frolic* amounted to nearly a hundred. Both ships were soon after attacked by a British seventy-four, and as they were in no situation to escape or make a defence, were captured and taken to Bermuda. One week later, the United States, forty-four, fell in with, encountered and captured the British frigate *Macedonian*, rated at thirty-eight guns, but in reality carrying forty-nine. Before the year closed, an engagement ensued between the *Constitution*, Commander Bainbridge, and the British frigate *Java*, forty-nine, off the



Burning of the *Java*.

coast of Brazil. The action was very severe, the *Java* losing two hundred men, in killed and wounded, and the *Constitution* about thirty. The *Java* surrendered, and being nearly reduced to a hulk, was burned by the Americans.

An attack on Queenstown, in Canada, was planned and carried into execution, at

the close of 1812. Owing to bad management, and to the militia refusing to follow the regular troops, as they had promised to do, the Americans, after having got a foothold in the country, and having taken the battery on the heights of Queenstown, were obliged to surrender, and retreat. Nothing was accomplished, although circumstances

were favorable in the highest degree to the Americans. Early in Jan., 1813, Frenchtown, a place twenty-six miles from Detroit, was attacked by a large force of British and Indians; it was successfully defended for a time by Gen. Winchester, but was finally taken, together with five hundred prisoners. A most frightful massacre followed; the unhappy victims being stripped, plundered, tomahawked or roasted at the stake. But few lived to be exchanged. The following spring, the town of York, on Lake Ontario, the great depository of the British military stores, was attacked by the Americans, under Gen. Pike: they took the town and fortifications, the barracks and stores, and seven hundred

and fifty prisoners. In May, Fort George, another strong British post, in the vicinity of York, was taken after a sharp and bloody conflict, together with over six hundred prisoners. In the same month, Fort Meigs, the head-quarters of the north-western army, under Gen. Harrison, was unsuccessfully besieged by the British, under Gen. Proctor.

During the first six months of 1813, the Americans were not so successful at sea as in the year preceding. The Chesapeake, Captain Lawrence, was captured by the Shannon in June, and the Argus by the Pelican, in July. In September, however, the tide began to turn, and in an action between the American vessel Enterprise



Battle of Lake Erie.

and the British brig Boxer, the Americans were completely victorious. In the same month, an action took place on Lake Erie, between the American and British fleets there. After four hours' hard fighting the British surrendered their whole fleet, consisting of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns. At the battle of the Moravian towns, which soon followed, the Americans, under Generals Harrison and Shelby, utterly routed the combined British and Indian army, under Gen. Proctor. Tecumseh, the celebrated Indian chief, was killed in this battle. This action ended the war in the north-west.

The spring of 1814 opened with the loss of the U. States frigate Essex, in the Bay of Valparaiso, Chili. Later in the spring the British brig Epervier was taken by the United States sloop of war Peacock. The Wasp, already mentioned, made two captures of British ships this year, the sloops of war Reindeer and Avon. The war upon the land languished during the first half of the year 1814, the British having need of all their troops at home in combating Napoleon. But no sooner had he fallen, than fourteen thousand of the troops which had fought under Wellington were let loose upon the Canadian frontier. The battle of Chip-

pewa ensued, in which the Americans obtained a bloody and dearly bought victory. Another portion of the British force, which the close of the French war enabled England to pour upon this country, entered the Potomac river in a squadron of fifty or sixty sail, and proceeded towards Washington. This city they captured; they burnt the capitol, the president's house, the public offices, the arsenal and the navy yard. Several private buildings were also destroyed. From Washington the British went as rap-

idly as possible to Baltimore. On the way, they met with such opposition that they gave up the enterprise, and retreated to their ships. The war on Lake Champlain, which comes next in the order of time, was signally fortunate for the Americans. Both on the water, and in the engagements of the land forces, they were in the highest degree successful, though fighting against a force many times greater than their own.

It is at this period that the commissioners, who had been appointed by both govern-



Battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815.

ments to lay the basis of negotiation for peace, met at Ghent, in Holland. A treaty of peace was signed on the 24th Dec., 1814. Before it was known in the United States, a terrific battle took place at New Orleans, between the British, under Packenham and Gibbs, and the Americans, under General Jackson. This battle is one of the most extraordinary on record. The British troops were picked men, were thoroughly disciplined troops, and amounted to about 12,000. The Americans were mostly raw

militia, and hardly numbered 6,000. Yet the British were defeated with the most dreadful slaughter, losing their two generals in the first onset. Their loss amounted to seven hundred in killed, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred taken prisoners. The Americans had but seven men killed and six wounded. The treaty signed at Ghent was ratified at Washington on the 17th of February, and peace was hailed with joy throughout the United States.



WONDERS OF THE HONEY-BEE.

THE common hive or honey-bee may be regarded as one of the most wonderful and curious subjects of observation to a student in natural history. Its habits, its peculiar organization, the vast amount of labor it performs, its love of order and regularity, its administration of the internal economy of a hive, all render it a most attractive study to those who are interested in observing the ways and habits of animals. In giving a brief description of these curious occupants of the hive, we shall confine ourselves principally to the honey-bee, but shall first explain the duties and occupations of the queen and the drones.

In a single hive there are sometimes not fewer than thirty thousand bees of various sorts. These are divided into three classes or sexes, each having its own peculiar work to do. First is the queen-bee, the only female in the hive, who may be distinguished from the others by her greater size, more elongate form, and brighter colors. Her duty principally consists in the laying of eggs; in this occupation she is attended by a body-guard of workers, who pay her the greatest possible attention. She is the mother of the hive, that is, of its future inhabitants, as well as the swarms of the following summer. She exercises the most extraordinary influence with the population over which she presides. Though her absence deprives the working-bees of no organ, paralyzes no limb, yet in every instance that they are deprived of her, they neglect their duties, and unless provided with another queen, refuse food, and quickly perish. Reaumur proved this astonishing

fact, by dividing a hive, leaving one portion in possession of their queen, and depriving the other of her presence; that division in which she remained, made two combs in a very short space of time, while the others did not construct a single cell; and had he not restored the queen, they would have allowed themselves to starve.



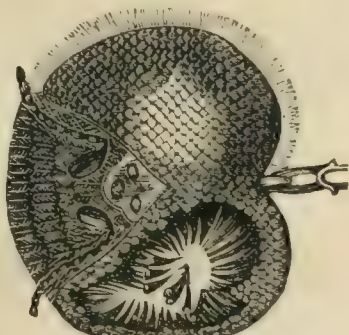
Queen-bee, magnified.

The male bees, or drones, of which there are several hundreds, sometimes even two thousand, in a full hive, are idle creatures, and do no work; their only duty is to impregnate the queen, and this effected, they are driven ignominiously from the hive by the working-bees. They may be distinguished by their more bulky size, and by the fact that they have no sting; in flying, they make a much greater noise than the other bees. They seldom leave the hive, and then only when the sun shines, and near the middle of the day. They meet their death with resignation, when, at the

end of their probation, they are attacked and stung to death by the workers, and seem to feel that their hour is come, and have at least the merit of dying with fortitude.

The working-bees, otherwise called hive, honey, or neuter bees, are by far the most important portion of the hive; they constitute the great mass of the population of a society, though the smallest members in the community. To them the internal economy of a hive is committed, and upon them the whole labor of the swarm devolves; they mount guard, and protect the queen, feed the young, and kill the drones. These various duties are not performed by the whole community indiscriminately, but a hive is divided into classes, to each of which is assigned some particular business. One band secretes the wax; another collects the honey; others never leave the hive, but are employed as a body-guard for the queen, or as a watch over the necessities of the young.

The working-bee is about half an inch long, and three hundred and twenty of them weigh an ounce.



The eye of a bee, magnified.

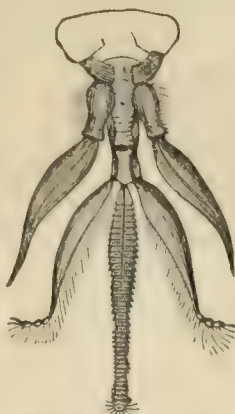
It has a large round eye on each side of its head, and two strong teeth, which enable it to construct its cells. Below the teeth is an instrument for collecting honey, which is called the *proboscis*. The bee has four wings and six legs. In the third pair of



Leg of a bee, showing the basket or cavity.

legs is a cavity, or triangular basket, for the purpose of carrying pollen, or bee-bread, with which the young are fed. The sting

consists of two parts, or rather of two stings applied against each other. The external side of each has several barbs like those of a dart. When inserted in the flesh, these barbs prevent its being easily withdrawn. Whenever a bee is forced to leave its sting in the wound, it generally dies soon after.



Tongue of a bee, magnified.



Sting of bee, magnified.

Besides the two large eyes already mentioned, each bee has, on the upper part of the head, and between the antennæ, three other eyes, which are quite small. These are for the purpose of enabling the bee to see upward, as the others enable it to see forward and downward.



Bees secreting wax.

It was at first supposed that wax was made from the yellow pellets or pollen which the bees are seen to convey to the hive. Huber was the first to discover that wax is made from honey alone. It is, at first, a fluid which issues from little wax-pockets, intended for the purpose of secreting it. On cooling, or drying, it falls in scales or

plates, at the bottom of the hive. While secreting the wax, the bees to whom this duty has fallen, form a sort of curtain, one holding on to another, as is represented in the preceding engraving.

The wax thus made, is used by others in the formation of cells. These cells are six-sided; no room is thus lost, and greater strength and solidity are obtained, each cell serving to fortify that which it joins.

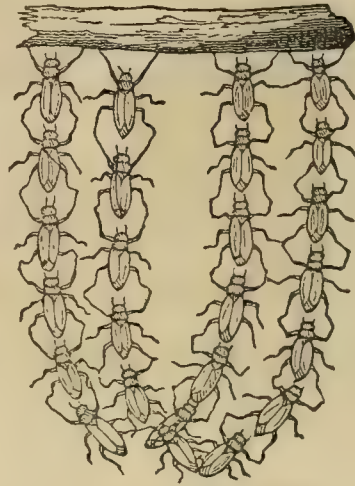


Honey-comb and cells.

When the cells are on the point of being commenced, the swarm divides itself into bands, one of which produces the wax to be used in the structure; another takes it and begins the work; another brings food to the laborers.

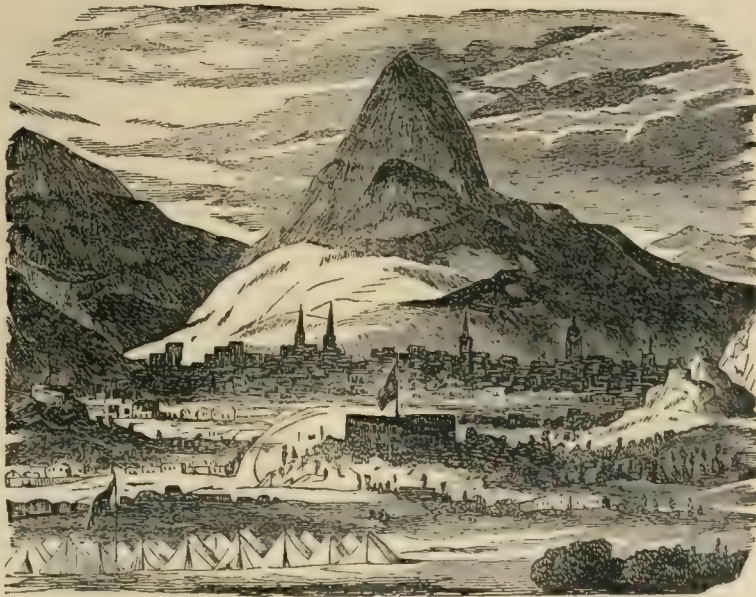
A very interesting period in the history of a hive, is that in which those bees that remain of an old swarm, together with those newly hatched and reared, set off in various squadrons in search of a new home. The queen-mother loses her parental feelings, becomes infuriated, and, rushing from cell to cell, in which are deposited the future queens, her offspring, she tries to tear them open; the guards make way for her, and suffer her to act as she pleases. She becomes soon fatigued, however, and, in a state of delirium, runs about the hive, communicating a spirit of disorder and excitement to the inmates of the hive. She finally rushes out of the hive, followed by a great portion of the original swarm, without

order, but in one continuous stream, whirling, buzzing, rising and flying in every direction. By degrees they fix themselves upon a branch, form a group there, by hooking themselves one to another by their feet.



Bees hanging to a branch, after swarming.

It is this moment that bee-hunters usually seize for hiving the swarm, which is ordinarily done by inverting a hive immediately under it, and dislodging them by a vigorous shake of the branch. The bees generally fall in a cluster to the bottom of the hive, and before they have time to rise, the hive may be turned to its proper position. The bees which were left behind in the old hive follow some of the newly-hatched queens in search of a new abode, and they too are hived in the manner already indicated. In this way three, and even four, swarms are thrown out of a single hive. The art of following these swarms, of discovering beforehand when a hive is on the point of breaking up and seeking new homes, of enticing them to settle, and of successfully hiving them, is one of no small difficulty and address, and it has become a profession of considerable importance. The fact that a bee, when laden with honey, rises in the air to obtain a sight of its hive, and then flies directly to it without varying from a straight line, has caused the term, *a bee-line*, to be applied to any line indicating the shortest distance between two given points.



View of Monterey.

THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

SPAIN recognized the independence of Mexico in 1820. In 1824, the States of Mexico united in a federal government, which centralized the powers of the states at the capital, leaving the independent states to become insignificant and dependent provinces. Among these states was Texas: not desiring to sink into this subordinate position, the energetic people of this state, though few, resolved to declare themselves independent of Mexico and every other state.

For many years, Mexico endeavored to reduce the Texans to obedience, but in 1836 her independence was recognized by the United States. This gave umbrage to Mexico, as she had not yet surrendered her claims, and this umbrage was heightened to animosity, when, in 1845, Texas was annexed to our Union, as a sister state.

Previously to this cause of complaint on the part of Mexico, the United States, on her part, had great reason for dissatisfaction with Mexico. During nearly twenty years injuries had been committed at sundry times by Mexicans upon the persons and property of citizens of the United States, and the settlement of these had been from time to time deferred, in consequence of the repeated changes which took place in the Mexican government. The two governments had even appointed commissioners to settle our claims. Some were deter-

mined, but even these remained unpaid. In 1845, the Mexicans refused to receive our ambassador.

In this state of feeling, on both sides, the government of the United States had deemed it important to have a force upon the frontier, especially as it had agreed to take upon itself the settlement of the western boundary of Texas, as claimed against Mexico. This force advanced to the extreme edge of the disputed boundary; a collision took place in 1846; blood was shed and war was begun.

At Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma Gen. Taylor and his brave soldiers, though surrounded by fearful odds, beat off and conquered the enemy. The west side of the Rio Grande was soon in the power of our victorious troops. Col. Doniphan had taken Santa Fe, and after a little more fighting, New Mexico was also subdued.

Gen. Taylor pushed on towards Mexico, took Camargo, Cerralvo, and Monterey, where his men behaved with the utmost intrepidity. Having defeated and dispersed the Mexican army, he pushed on beyond Monterey to Saltillo, while another army under Santa Anna himself was advancing towards him. At this critical moment, many of his regular troops were ordered away from Gen. Taylor, to commence another line of operations towards Mexico, from Vera Cruz, under Gen. Scott.



Bombardment of Vera Cruz.

Gen. Taylor, though weakened and annoyed, was still undismayed; he took an advanced position at Buena Vista. The veterans of Europe now looked on with admiration at the unerring strategy of this wonderful advance, with raw recruits and volunteers, triumphing in battle after battle

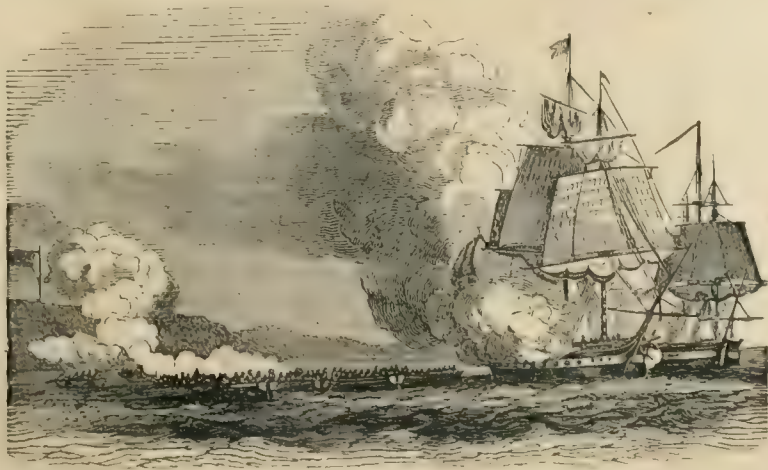
in the face of every odds and every disadvantage, gaining victories, when, by all the rules, they should have been defeats! But what a blaze of glory surrounded our little army when the result of the well-fought field of Buena Vista, against quintuple odds, was known to the applauding world!



Americans approaching the city of Mexico.

The best portion of the Mexican army was utterly routed and dispersed at Buena Vista. At Vera Cruz, the town itself was taken, and after a short bombardment, the fort of St. Juan de Ulloa, impregnable as it seemed, surrendered. After much skirmishing, gaining brilliant victories at Cerro Gordo and Puebla, our little army of heroes appeared before

the gates of Mexico. The sanguinary battles of Cherubusco, Molino del Rey, and the streets of Mexico, in which so many brave men fell on both sides, made us masters of the renowned capital of the Montezumas, romantic Mexico itself. Only a handful of Americans now held a city and suburbs of a quarter of million of people, and main-



tained a greater degree of order and quiet than had reigned there for many years!

Having taken all the ports along the Gulf of Mexico, and on the Pacific, and after

some fighting, having taken possession of California, holding Vera Cruz and its castle, the capital and its roads, our government were able to dictate a peace. It used its power with moderation; it agreed with Mexico to take upon itself the discharging of all claims of its own citizens against the Mexican republic, and to pay fifteen millions of dollars for a boundary line, beginning at

the mouth of the Rio Grande, then up that stream, to the southern boundary of New Mexico, then across to the Gila, and down to its mouth, with free navigation to the Gulf of California, and thence across to the Pacific.

The war commenced by the fighting near Matamoras, in the spring of 1846, and was thus finished by a treaty of peace, amity, and commerce, May 30, 1848.



MURDER OF MISS MACREA.

It is well known that in the Revolutionary War, the English, being in want of troops, a great part of their best soldiers being employed in the defence and garrison of their numerous colonies, hired large bodies of foreign mercenaries, whom they sent to our shores to fight in their cause. Great numbers of Hessians, of Germans, of Canadians, and, lastly, of Indians, were thus enrolled under their banner. The employment of the Indians excited an odium, which was in no degree compensated by any services they could render.

An incident that occurred in 1777, roused indignation to the highest pitch, and created a sensation wholly to the disadvantage of the British cause. Two savages were employed to conduct Miss Macrea, a young American lady of great personal beauty, to the British camp, where she was to be mar-

ried to a British officer. On the way, they quarrelled about the expected reward, when one of them, exasperated to fury, and resolved at all events to disappoint his rival, struck her dead with his tomahawk!

In reference to this atrocity, Gen. Gates wrote, — "That the savages of America should, in their warfare, mangle and scalp the unhappy prisoners who fall into their hands, is nothing new nor extraordinary; but that the famous Lieutenant-General Burgoyne, in whom the fine gentleman is united with the soldier and scholar, should hire the barbarians of America to scalp Europeans and the descendants of Europeans — nay more, that he should pay a price for each scalp so barbarously taken, is more than will be believed in Europe, until authenticated facts shall, in every gazette, confirm the horrid tale."



FERNANDO CORTEZ.

FERNANDO CORTEZ, the conqueror of Mexico, was born in Estremadura, Spain, in 1485. He emigrated to the West Indies in 1504, where, some years after, the Governor of Cuba gave him the command of a fleet, in which he sailed on a voyage of discovery. He quitted the port of San Jago in November, 1518, with ten vessels, six hundred Spaniards, eighteen horses, and some field-pieces. He landed at Tobasco, in Mexico, where he forced the natives to acknowledge the supremacy of the King of Spain. He next proceeded to that part of Mexico where Vera Cruz now stands. He here received envoys from Montezuma, the sovereign of the country, who brought him many rich presents, and by which the curiosity and avarice of the invaders were highly stimulated. Cortez determined, spite of the weakness of his little army, to advance into the interior of the country. At this

time, Mexico was the most powerful monarchy in the western world, and contained a population of about eight millions. It had made great advances in civilization, and the people had built fine cities and splendid temples and palaces.

As Cortez advanced, striking terror into the Mexican people by the exhibition of his firearms and horses, his little band received continual additions from various bodies of disaffected Indians, who encouraged him in his hopes of conquering the country. After many pitched battles, in all of which the Mexicans were defeated, Cortez arrived at the city of Mexico, where the terror-stricken Montezuma received him as his master; he was even supposed by the inhabitants to be a god, and a child of the sun! He destroyed the idols, and placed in their stead images of the Virgin Mary. He was continually endeavoring to

strengthen himself by forming alliances with those caciques, who were hostile to Montezuma. His success and victories were such, that the jealousy of Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, was excited, and he sent an army against him. Cortez gained over these troops, and incorporated them into his army. Thus reinforced, he again made war upon the Mexicans. Montezuma, having been dethroned by his subjects, was succeeded by his nephew, Gautimozin, who, with all his court and retainers, fell into Cortez's hands three months after.

The court of Madrid now became jealous of Cortez in its turn, and sent commissioners to inspect and control his measures.

Upon this Cortez returned to Spain, where he was received with much distinction. He afterwards returned to Mexico with an increase of titles, but a diminution of power. A viceroy controlled the government, while the military command only was entrusted to Cortez. His life became embittered from this period, and though in 1536 he discovered the peninsula of California, he returned to Spain, where he was received with indifference and neglect. He passed the remainder of his days in solitude, and died near Seville, in 1554, leaving behind him a character eminent for bravery and ability, but infamous for perfidy and cruelty.



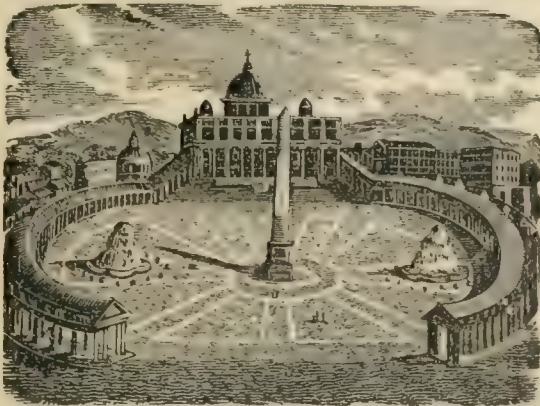
CHEVY-CHASE.

ONE of the most celebrated of British ballads is that of Chevy-Chase. A good deal of antiquarian research has been expended to discover the historical event celebrated by this ballad, and the story seems to be something like the following. The battle had its origin in the rivalry of the Percys and Douglasses for distinction in arms; the first living in England, on the border of Scotland, and the latter in

Scotland, contiguous to England. Their respective pennons often met on their marches; their war-cries were often raised either in hostility or defiance. Percy made a vow that he would enter Scotland, take his pleasure in the woods bordering on the estate of Douglas, and hunt the deer for three summer days in the domain of his rival. "Tell him," replied Douglas, "that he will find one day enough." But Percy,

nowise intimidated, marched into Scotland with fifteen hundred chosen archers and greyhounds for the chase. Douglas and his host soon appeared, and the two leaders agreed to settle the feud themselves, in a hand-to-hand fight. The ardor of battle soon communicated itself to the armies of the two leaders. Percy and Douglas both fell, but the contention was continued by the rival hosts. The slaughter was terrible, but the various editions of the ballad leave

us in doubt as to which side gained the victory. "Of twenty hundred Scottish spears," says the English version of the ballad, "scarce fifty-five did flee." "Of fifteen hundred English spears," says the Scotch edition, "went home but fifty-three." Froissart, in the account which he drew from knights of both lands, says that the Scotch were conquerors. On both sides, the flower of the border chivalry were engaged.



ST. PETER'S CHURCH, AT ROME.

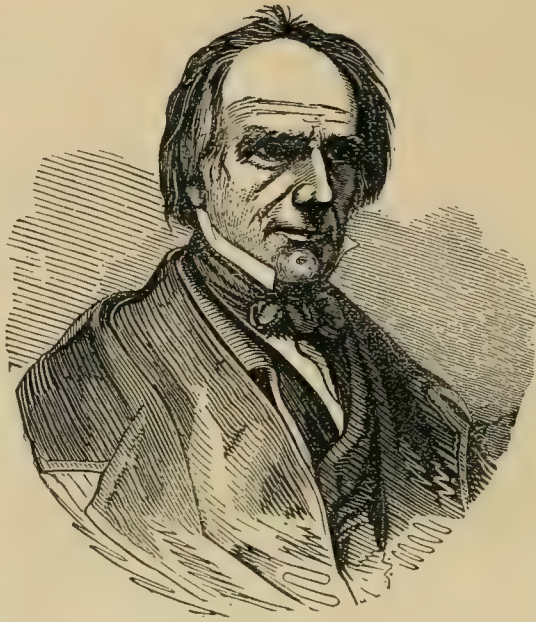
THE site of this wonderful pile is that of the ancient church of Constantine. The first stone of the present edifice was laid in 1506, by Pope Julius II.; its construction was confided to Brahmante Lazzarri, but he died soon after, and the duties of architect fell upon Michael Angelo Buonarrotti, whose sublime genius is manifest at every step. He kept strictly to the original design, which was that of a Greek cross, but after his death the lengthy Latin cross was substituted. Though aided by the immense wealth and power of the Roman church, yet it took one hundred and fifteen years to complete the temple only, while one hundred and fifty men were required to build the colonnade and ornaments. About fifty million crowns were expended in its construction, and about thirty thousand crowns are required annually to keep the immense mass in repair.

The clear inside length of the church is six hundred and fifteen feet, and its breadth four hundred and forty-eight feet; the extreme height from the piazza to the cross is four hundred and sixty-four feet. It is nearly one third of a mile round the church. The walls of the building are of Travertine

stone. Vast as the structure appears to be, it is said that there is a still larger quantity of stone which remains unseen; the depth of the foundation, and the enormous thickness of the substructures, being such that there is actually more of the material under than above ground. Everything is vast in this splendid pile; the effect of the interior is surpassingly grand. The figures of the Evangelist, in the inside of the cupola, are of colossal size; the pen in St. Mark's hand is six feet long!

The central nave is one hundred and fifty-two feet high, and eighty-nine feet broad; it is flanked on either side by a noble arcade, the piers of which are decorated with niches and pilasters of the Corinthian order. The concave surface of the cupola is divided into compartments, and enriched by majestic figures of saints in Mosaic, and other works of art, and is brilliantly lighted from above and below. Ten or twelve feet beneath the pavement of the present church is the tomb of St. Peter, before which one hundred lamps are constantly kept burning!

St. Peter's must be considered as by far the most costly and splendid church ever erected.



HENRY CLAY.

THE subject of this sketch was born in the year 1777, in Hanover county, Virginia. His family was in humble circumstances, his father being a clergyman of the Baptist persuasion. Four years after the birth of Henry, his father died, leaving seven children to the care of his widow. Henry was the fifth child, there being two younger than he. He entered a store when very young, where he remained till the completion of his fifteenth year, when he was placed in the office of Mr. Tinsley, clerk in the Chancery Court, Richmond. Here he became acquainted with Chancellor Wythe, whose amanuensis he was afterwards made, and with Attorney-General Brooke, formerly Governor of Virginia. He accepted an invitation to enter this gentleman's office, where he remained till 1797, when he was admitted to practice. He now followed his mother, who had married a second time, to Kentucky, and located himself at Lexington. Here he rapidly rose in estimation, and soon acquired fame and means. In 1797, he made himself rather unpopular by advocating the prospective abolition of slavery; but soon after he recovered his standing and favor by opposing the sedition laws of the administration of John Adams.

In 1803, Mr. Clay was elected to the House of Representatives of Kentucky, in which body he remained till 1806, when he

was sent to the U. S. Senate to fill the unexpired term of Gen. Adair, who had resigned. In 1807, he returned to Kentucky, where he became Speaker of the House. In 1808, occurred his first duel, in which Humphrey Marshall was his antagonist. At the second exchange of shots, both parties were slightly wounded, where the matter rested. The year following, Mr. Clay was again sent to the U. S. Senate, to serve out the unexpired term of Mr. Thurston. It was at this period that his career as a national statesman may be said to have commenced. He here broached his ideas on the subject of protection, of which he has always been the advocate and champion. In 1811, he was elected by the people of Kentucky to the U. S. House of Representatives, which became to him the theatre of his greatest triumph. He was chosen Speaker of this body the very day he entered. He now became a vigorous advocate for proceeding to extreme measures in our quarrel with England, and supported the war policy with all the fervor of his mind and talent. The war following, in 1812 and '13, he was a second time chosen Speaker. He was soon obliged, however, to resign this office, and proceed to Europe as commissioner to treat for peace with Great Britain. Peace was concluded at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814, and the treaty was subsequently

ratified by both governments. He now returned to the United States, was reelected to Congress, and was for the third time chosen Speaker of the House, which office he retained till 1825. In the election of 1825, the people failing to make a choice of President, it fell to the House of Representatives to nominate to that office one of the candidates who had received the largest popular vote. Mr. Clay had been largely voted for by the people, but not enough so to bring him before the House. Mr. Clay gave his support to J. Q. Adams, who was subsequently elected. Under him Mr. Clay was Secretary of State. While holding this office, his second duel took place, John Randolph, of Virginia, being his antagonist.

In 1829, the administration of Mr. Adams closing, Mr. Clay retired to private life. In 1831, however, he returned to the Senate,

where he remained till 1832. In this year, he was the Whig candidate for the presidency against Gen. Jackson. Jackson was elected by an immense majority. In 1839, when the nomination of a candidate for the Whig party was to be made, it was universally supposed that Mr. Clay would receive it. Gen. Harrison, however, was the candidate selected, and was triumphantly elected at the close of the same year. In 1844, Mr. Clay was nominated in the contest against Polk, but was again defeated. In 1848, the nomination, which was a long time balanced between Mr. Clay and Gen. Taylor, was finally given to the latter, who was elected president on the 7th of November, 1848. On the 1st day of February, 1849, Mr. Clay was again chosen to the U. S. Senate by the Legislature of Kentucky. He will take his seat in that body in the session of 1849-50.



THE ESQUIMAUX.

THE Esquimaux are a nation inhabiting the most northern countries of America, and if the extent of the country be considered, are one of the most widely-spread nations on the globe. They occupy the whole of the great peninsula of Labrador, and the

eastern coast of Hudson's Bay. The whole country between the Great Fish river, the Mackenzie river, and the Arctic Ocean, is exclusively inhabited by them. The coast lying to the west of Mackenzie river is also in their possession, while Greenland and all

the other islands between the northern coast of America and the pole, as far as habitable, are also occupied by this race.

They are a peculiarly formed people, and in stature rarely exceed five feet. Their faces are broad, their cheek-bones high, their mouths large, and lips thick. Their noses are small, but flat. Their eyes are generally dark and deeply seated, the eyelids being much encumbered with fat. The hair is uniformly long and of a jet black color. The ears are situated far back on the head. Their bodies are large, square, and robust; the chest high, and shoulders very broad. Their hands and feet are remarkably small; there is, however, no sudden diminution, both extremities appearing to taper from above downwards in a wedge-like shape. They are of a deep tawny, or rather copper-colored, complexion. They pluck out the beard as soon as it appears. They show a good deal of ingenuity in making their dresses and instruments, and

some of them have attracted the attention of travellers by their display of mental power.

They clothe themselves in the skins of marine animals, which constitute their principal sustenance. Besides taking seals and whales, they hunt the reindeer, the bear, wolves, and other wild beasts. Their domestic animals are a large kind of dogs, which they use for draught and the chase. Their arms are bows and arrows, spears and knives. Their canoes are composed of wood or whalebone, covered with seal-skin. They are entirely without government, and nothing is known of their religious notions. They wrap up the dead in skins, and deposit the body, with the arms of the deceased, in the hollow of a rock. They speak a dialect entirely distinct from that of the other aborigines scattered over the continent, and, in fact, resemble them in no one respect, differing from them in character, habits of living, complexion and stature.



Ruins of Balbec.

RUINS OF ANCIENT CITIES.

THE ruins of the city of Balbec, the ancient *Heliopolis*, (or City of the Sun,) are the finest in the East. The city is in Syria, about forty miles from Damascus, and is now inhabited by about 5000 inhabitants. The remains of the Temple of the Sun in this city are the most splendid of antiquity. A great part of it is still uninjured; many of the columns have disappeared, only six out of fifty-four remaining; the shafts of these are fifty-four feet high and nearly twenty-two in circumference; and the whole height including the pedestal and the capital is seventy-two feet. The size of the stones of which the walls of this temple are constructed is astonishing. No

mechanical expedient now known would be able to place them in their present situation. Excellent marble statues of Jupiter, Diana, and Leda, and bas-reliefs and busts of Roman emperors and empresses, are still to be seen; the great palace which Antoninus Pius is said to have built, and several other temples of distinguished beauty.

The ruins of Palmyra, another city of Syria, which, though equally celebrated with those of Balbec, are their inferiors in grandeur and style, have remained as Tamerlane left them in 1400, after having plundered the inhabitants and wasted the city. They have been in a desolate state for centuries past,—the spot being inhabited only by



Ruins of Palmyra.

a small tribe of Bedouin Arabs, who have built their hovels in the peristyle of the great temple. The first appearance of Palmyra is very striking. Its innumerable columns and other ruins, extending nearly a mile and a half in length and unobstructed by modern buildings, contrast by their snow-white appearance with the yellowish sand of the desert. There is a great sameness in the architecture, all the columns being Corinthian, except those which surround the Temple of the Sun, which are Ionic and fluted. The most interesting remains of Palmyra are perhaps its sepulchres, which are outside the walls of the ancient city, and are built in the shape of square towers, from three to five stories high. The ceiling of these chambers, on which the paint is still perfect, is ornamented like that of the peristyle of the Temple of the Sun at Balbec,

with the heads of various deities disposed in diamond-shaped divisions. Remains of mummies and mummy cloth are found, resembling those of Egypt. The lines of the streets and the foundations of the houses are distinguishable in some places.

Among the remains of Persepolis, is the well known palace of *Chilminar*, i. e. *the forty columns*. These are undoubtedly the ruins of a great and magnificent structure, encircled in the rear by rocky mountains, which open in the form of a crescent, and consisting of three divisions, one above the other, and built entirely of the most beautiful gray marble, the immense blocks of which are put together, with admirable art, without mortar. Marble stairs, so wide and easy of ascent that ten horsemen can ride up them abreast, lead from the lower divisions to the higher. At the entrance

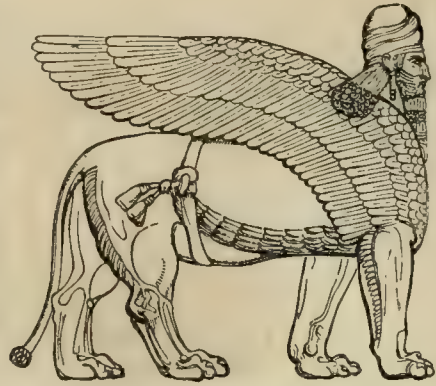


Ruins of Babylon.

to the portico fabulous animals are seen, if to guard the palace. On the second wrought in the still remaining pilastres, as division there still exist several columns

of a colonnade, fifty feet high, and of such a circumference that three men can hardly clasp them. Though this building and those in its neighborhood belong to Persian antiquity, yet it is probable that the Persians themselves did not construct them, but caused them to be erected by others.

The ruins of Babylon have been already noticed. The ruins of Nineveh, the first great city known to history, have been recently investigated by Mr. Layard, an Englishman, with great success. The centre of Nineveh was opposite the present city of Mosul, on the east bank of the Tigris; but some miles below this point, Mr. Layard discovered the vestiges of several temples, evidently built 3000 years ago. They were covered with rubbish, but he found blocks of stone, covered with



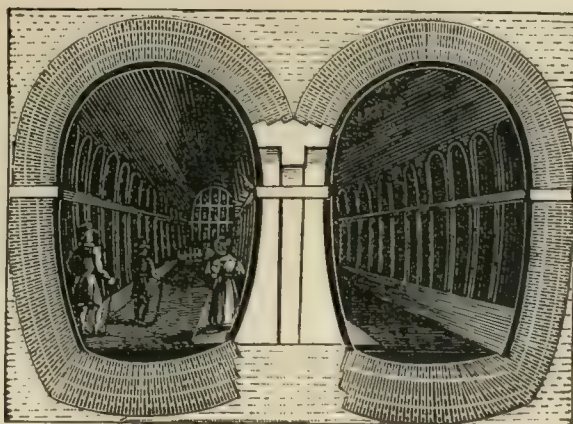
sculptures and reliefs, affording the most wonderful insight into the manners and customs of the ancient Assyrians.



DREAMS.

DREAMS are trains of thought presenting themselves during sleep. The dreamer is introduced into a sort of fairy land, where the soul seems to converse with numberless beings of its own creation, and is transported into numberless scenes of its own raising; it is itself the theatre, the actor, and the beholder. We are told that, when we are in a dreaming state, all the bodily functions which depend upon volition are suspended, and the bodily senses, though not entirely in a state of abeyance, become very obtuse. But this does not interrupt the activity of the mind; on the contrary, the power of imagination and the celerity with which ideas pass through the mind, are increased by the cessation of communication through the senses. The mind, therefore, acts vigorously when the powers of the body are resting; and it is only advancing another step to suppose that it can act

independently of its material instrument and survive it. The most curious circumstance in the phenomena of dreams is the extreme rapidity in which a long train of incident may be suggested and coupled. Lord Brougham says, in speaking on this subject, "A puncture made, will immediately produce a long dream, which seems to terminate in some such accident as that the sleeper had been wandering through a wood and received a severe wound from a spear, or the tooth of a wild animal, which at the same instant awakes him. A gun fired in one instance during the alarm of invasion, made a military man at once dream that the enemy had landed, that he ran to his post, and repairing to the scene of action, was present when the first discharge took place, which also at the same moment awakened him." From these facts, Lord Brougham infers the infinite rapidity of thought.



THE THAMES TUNNEL.

THE Thames Tunnel was commenced in 1824, by Mr. Brunell, the great civil engineer. Two unsuccessful attempts to form a tunnel, under the Thames, had previously been made, in 1799 and in 1804.

Mr. Brunell began his operations by making preparations for a shaft fifty feet in diameter, which he commenced one hundred and fifty feet from the river on the Surrey side; this he effected by constructing on the surface of the ground a substantial brick cylinder of that diameter, forty-two feet in height and three feet in thickness. Over this he set up a steam-engine necessary for pumping out the water, and for raising the earth to be taken from within the cylinder, and then proceeded to sink it bodily into the earth. By this means he succeeded in passing through a bed of sand and gravel twenty-six feet deep, constituting, in part, a quicksand, and in which the drift-makers of the former undertaking had been compelled to suspend their work.

The cylinder having been sunk to the depth of sixty-five feet, the horizontal excavation was commenced at the depth of sixty-three feet; and in order to have sufficient thickness of ground to pass safely under the deep part of the river, the excavation was made to descend two feet three inches in every hundred feet. This excavation is thirty feet wide, and twenty-two and a half feet high, and the process of making it may briefly be described as follows.

It was accomplished by means of a powerful apparatus of iron, called a *shield*, and which consisted of twelve large frames, standing close to each other, like so many volumes on the shelf of a book-case, these

frames being twenty-two feet in height, and about three feet in width. They were divided into three stages or stories, thus presenting thirty-six cells or chambers for the miners. The front of each one of these cells was protected by narrow boards, technically called "polling-boards," each of which was separately held in its place by an apparatus constructed for the purpose. The miner commenced by removing the upper polling-board in his division of the shield, thus exposing a small portion of earth; into this earth he made an excavation of six inches in depth, throwing the earth behind him, from whence it was removed to the mouth of the tunnel, and from there raised by steam to the surface of the ground. He then replaced the polling-board, causing it to press against the face of the newly excavated earth, and thus advancing it six inches beyond the other polling-boards of his division. Then successively taking down the remaining boards, excavating the earth six inches behind them, and replacing the boards six inches further in than before, he very soon had advanced that distance over the whole length of his division. All the other miners in the thirty-six cells having done the same, the framework was moved forward; and six inches more of earth removed. It was in this way, by these slow degrees, that the work was finally completed. As the framework advanced, it was closely followed by a solid mass of brick-work, enclosing two arched passages. These two passages were separated by a solid wall, three and a half feet at the top and four at the bottom. Other arches were however formed in this wall, for the purpose of opening a communication

between one tunnel and the other. The whole of the brick-work is laid in Roman cement, and each archway is finished with a lining of cement, a carriage-road and a narrow footpath adjoining the central wall.

This immense enterprise was not finally completed without serious delay and apparently insurmountable obstacles. The works were thrice interrupted — in 1826, by the breaking off of the clay, leaving the shield exposed to the influx of the land-water for six weeks; also in May, 1827, and in Jan., 1828, when the river broke in and filled the tunnel. This was however quickly remedied by filling the holes or chasms with strong

bags of clay; the structure, on clearing the tunnel of the water, was found in a most satisfactory state. Some time later, the works were suspended for seven years, owing to the want of funds. Parliament, however, after repeated applications, granted an advance for their completion, and the works were resumed and continued, till they were brought to a successful termination. The cost of the tunnel, with the approaches on both sides of the river, was about three million and a half dollars — much less than the cost of the modern metropolitan bridges which span the Thames between Surrey and Middlesex.



THE NYL-GHAU.

THE nyl-ghau is larger than the deer, and smaller than the black cattle of Europe; in its form there is a resemblance to both. Its horns are seven inches long, six inches round at the roots, tapering by degrees, and terminating in a blunt point; the ears are large, and spread to a considerable breadth; they are white on the edge and on the inside, except where two black bands mark the hollow of the ear with a zebra-like variety. The general color of the animal is ash or gray, from a mixture of black hairs and white, most of which are half white towards the root, and half black.

The nyl-ghau eats oats, is fond of grass and hay, and still fonder of wheaten bread.

When thirsty, it will drink two gallons of water. It is generally tame and gentle; and should it prove docile enough to be easily trained to labor, its great swiftness and considerable strength might be applied to valuable purposes. When the males fight, they prepare for the attack at a distance from each other, by falling down upon their knees; and in this attitude they approach, and when they are sufficiently near, spring and dart upon each other with great violence.

The nyl-ghau is considered a species of antelope; it is a native of India, but has lately been carried to Europe, where it is seen in menageries.



View of the Bastille.

THE IRON MASK.

ONE of the most extraordinary events recorded in the annals of captivity, is the imprisonment, life, death, and burial of an individual known as the "Iron Mask." This remarkable personage remained shrouded in obscurity for forty or fifty years, within the walls of a dungeon; and after his death his identity was never satisfactorily proved. We bridge the following account of him from Voltaire's "Age of Louis XIV." "In 1661," he says, "there happened an event of which there is no example in the history of the world, and with which the historians of that time seem to have been totally unacquainted. There was sent to the castle on the island of Marguerite, in the Sea of Provence, an unknown prisoner, rather above the middle size, young and of a graceful figure. On the road he wore a mask with steel springs, which enabled him to eat without taking it off. He remained here, closely confined, till 1690, when St. Mars, the new governor of the Bastille, had him conveyed to that prison. During the journey, he remained always covered with a mask, and the governor never sat down in his presence. He was lodged at the Bastille with all the attention possible in that dungeon. Nothing was refused him that he desired. His chief taste was for lace and linen, remarkably fine. He played well on the guitar. During his two journeys, the soldiers who escorted him had orders to shoot him, if he made any attempt to discover himself.

"This unknown person died in 1703, and was buried in the night. What increases our astonishment is that when he was sent to St. Marguerite, no person of importance in Europe was missing. Yet the prisoner was certainly one of the great ones of the world. Every circumstance connected with him proves this. The gov-

ernor put the dishes on his table himself, then retired and locked the door. One day the prisoner wrote something with his knife on a silver plate and threw it out of the window. A fisherman picked it up, and brought it to the governor, who with evident astonishment asked the man if he had read what was written on the plate, or if anybody else had seen it. He was not allowed to go till he had proved these points decisively. The governor then dismissed him, saying, '*It is lucky for you that you can not read.*' One of the prisoner's shirts, written upon in a very fine hand, was one day discovered in the water by a young barber; two days after the boy was found dead in his bed."

On the death of the Iron Mask, his apparel, linen, clothes, mattresses, and in short everything that had been used by him were burnt; the walls of his room were scraped, and the floors taken up; all evidently from the apprehension that he might have found means of writing something which would have discovered who he was. The glass was taken out of the window of his room and pounded to dust, the window-frame and doors were burnt, and the ceiling and the plaster of the inside of the chimney were taken down. It was even affirmed that the body was buried without a head; and it was currently reported, that a gentleman, having bribed the sexton, had the body taken up in the night, and found a stone instead of the head. The most prevalent opinion as regards this singular individual is, that he was the twin-brother of Louis XIV. born some hours after him: and that the king, their father, fearing that the pretensions of a twin-brother might one day rekindle civil war in France, cautiously concealed his birth, and sent him away to be brought up privately.



WALTER SCOTT.

WALTER SCOTT was born in Edinburgh in 1771, and was the fourth of ten children. His father was a lawyer and was very attentive to his profession, rigid in his religious opinions, and prudent in his ways of living. His mother was a small, plain, well-educated woman, rigid and prudent like her husband. Walter was feeble and sickly in his youth, and was sent to the borders of the Tweed at the age of five years. He here passed much of his time with his grandmother, who was a woman of great cleverness, and possessed a great stock of old tales and legends, and great knack in telling them. It is to this circumstance, and to the wild and romantic scenery about him, that we are to attribute, in a great degree, the turn taken by his genius in after life, and which has afforded the world so much gratification. At the age of eight he entered the high school of Edinburgh. He was not an industrious student, however, preferring to read romances and histories of the olden time. He became, at this period, an excellent story-teller, and often recounted tales of giants and dwarfs, fierce battles and fairy enchantments, to an admiring audience of school companions.

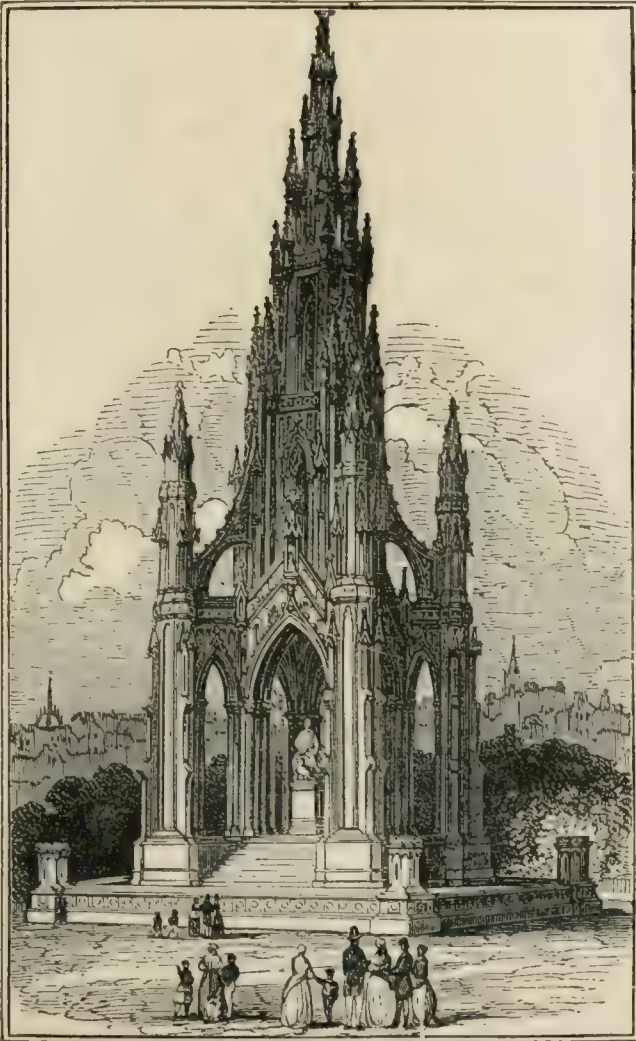
In 1783 he was transferred to the University of Edinburgh, where, the next year, he broke a blood-vessel, which reduced him to the verge of the grave. During the illness which followed, he did nothing but read, and became, as he said, "a glutton of books."

Scott was admitted to the bar in 1792, and in 1797 married Miss Carpenter, by whom he received a small fortune. He now began to write, and in 1800 published the *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*. This gave him at once a high stand with the literary men of the day. Then followed the *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, in 1808; *Marmion*, in 1808; *The Lady of the Lake*, in 1809; *Don Roderick*, in 1811; *Rokeby*, in 1813, and the *Lord of the Isles*, in 1814. As these poems appeared one after another, they cast successive flashes of delight over the whole of Europe; and the publication of a new poem "by the author of the *Lay of the Last Minstrel*," was hailed as a joyous event. The sudden apparition of Byron and his dazzling success, caused Scott to turn his attention to another species of writing, and in 1814 he published *Waverley*. Encouraged by a welcome such as

few authors ever received, he went on, and produced in the space of four years, *Guy Mannering*, the *Antiquary*, the *Black Dwarf*, *Old Mortality*, and the *Heart of Mid Lothian*. These were all published anonymously, and the author was termed the "Great Unknown." Still Scott was generally regarded as the author.

Scott now became engaged with the Ballantynes and Constable, eminent booksellers in Edinburgh, as a private partner in the

publishing of books. His own original productions were the chief subjects of this speculation. The sale of these was enormous, and Scott commenced the building of a vast baronial hall, which he entitled *Abbotsford*. Novel after novel was produced; and such was the confidence of his partners in him, that he received bills and obtained cash upon them for works not yet written, nor even named!



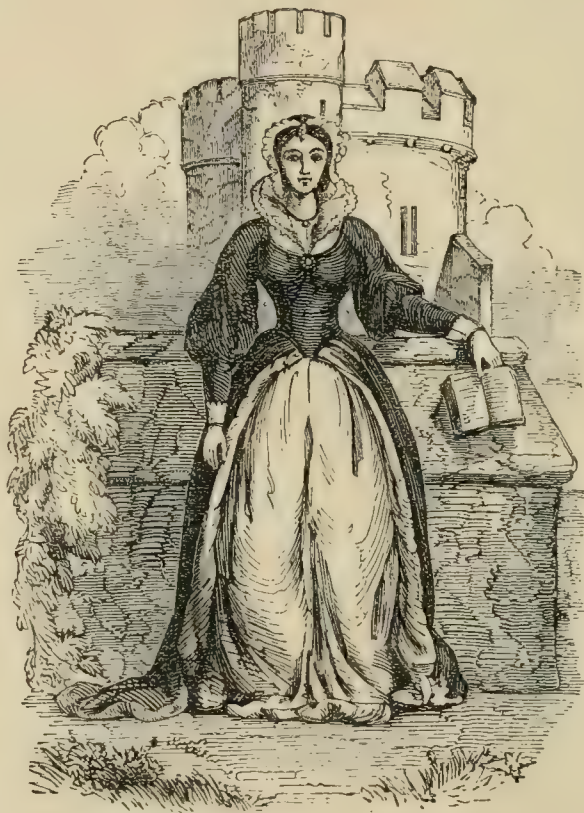
Scott's Monument.

Things went swimmingly on, till 1826, when the Ballantynes and Constable went down in a crash of bankruptcy, bearing Sir Walter with them; and he, as partner, was

left to pay debts to the amount of seven hundred thousand dollars. Undismayed at this frightful prospect, he set to work, and in the three years that followed, performed

an amount of literary labor altogether unparalleled. In this period he produced thirty original works, the proceeds from which amounted to two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. He spent twelve and fourteen hours a day in composition. Soon after, however, his constitution began to give way under this dreadful pressure, and he was obliged to give up writing and seek relief in travelling. He never fully recov-

ered, and in June, 1832, he was struck with paralysis. He was brought back to England, and finally to Scotland. He expired at Abbotsford on the 21st Sept., 1832. His last hours were lightened by the certainty that his debts would be paid by his own exertions. Abbotsford is now disencumbered, and remains in possession of the family. A splendid monument has been erected to the memory of Scott, at Edinburgh.



MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY STUART, celebrated for her beauty, her accomplishments, her errors, and her misfortunes, was born Dec. 8, 1542, and was the daughter of James V. of Scotland. Her father died eight days after, and a regency was appointed to reign in the stead of the youthful queen. She was sent to France at the age of six, where she was educated in a convent, and appears to have been instructed in every branch of learning and literature which was fashionable at that period. She was married in 1558 to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. He died

two years after, however, and Mary determined to return to Scotland and ascend the throne of her ancestors. A great change had taken place in her native country during her thirteen years' absence; when she left, the Roman Catholic religion reigned supreme; and the Romish clergy displayed a fierceness of intolerance which seemed to aim at nothing short of the extirpation of every seed of dissent and secession. But Knox had brought to bear against them the irresistible thunder of his eloquence, and had called forth the entire energies, physical

and mental, of the nation, which, under his guidance, expended themselves with the fury of awakened indignation upon the whole fabric of the ancient religion. The war of destruction was just completed, and the Protestant government established on the ruins of the Roman Catholic, when Mary returned. She was a strong Catholic, and had been taught in France to shrink at the avowal of Protestant opinions. The first Sunday after her arrival, she commanded a solemn mass to be celebrated in the chapel of the palace; a violent uproar ensued, and nearly resulted in a general riot. The following Sunday Knox delivered a terrible sermon against idolatry, and said that one mass was more to be feared than 10,000 armed men. Thus did the unfortunate queen find herself at variance with her subjects; but her youth, her beauty, and her accomplishments interested so many in her favor, that the peace of the country continued unbroken.

In 1565, she married her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley; the ceremony being performed according to the rites of the Romish church. Whether she had a right to choose her husband without the consent of Parliament was a doubtful point; but she certainly had not the power to confer upon him the title and dignity of king, or to invest him with the character of a sovereign; yet so entirely had she fascinated and subjugated the hearts of her subjects, that her conduct in this respect produced no general dissatisfaction. Her life with Darnley was not a happy one, however; he appears to have been a profligate and ungrateful husband, and a weak and worthless man. Excited by jealousy, he caused his wife's secretary, Rizzio, to be assassinated in her presence, and offered her many other indignities. In the mean time, the well-known Earl of Bothwell was rapidly advancing in the queen's favor, and at length no business was concluded, no grace bestowed, without his assent and participation. Meanwhile, also, Mary bore a son to Darnley, afterwards James I. of England. Darnley himself was soon after seized with the small-pox, or some dangerous distemper, and when very ill, the house in which he was lodged was blown up with gunpowder. Bothwell was the author of this horrid deed; but it is a matter of great uncertainty whether Mary was privy to it or not. Bothwell was tried for the crime, but his accuser not appearing, he was acquitted without the examination of a single witness. He raised a process of divorce against his wife on the

ground of consanguinity, and married Mary just nine days after he obtained the decree in his favor.

Public indignation could be restrained no longer; the nobles rose against Bothwell and Mary, and pursued them from fastness to fastness. Mary was forced to abandon Bothwell, and throw herself on the mercy of her subjects. She was conducted to the castle of Lochleven, where it was determined that she should abdicate in favor of the prince her son. To the instrument of resignation she was constrained to affix her signature; and the young prince was solemnly crowned at Stirling in 1567, when little more than a year old. Mary continued at Lochleven, but made her escape in less than a twelve-month, and collected a considerable army. The battle of Langside ensued, where she was completely routed. She then passed into England, hoping to secure the favor of Elizabeth. This haughty and jealous queen refused to grant her an audience, and detained her a captive a period of nineteen years, till the end of the year 1586, when she was accused of being accessory to Babington's conspiracy against the Queen of England. A commission was appointed to try her, and notwithstanding Mary's protestations against being tried by any but her peers, proceeded in their work. Mary was condemned, and on the 8th of Feb. 1587, suffered decapitation at the castle of Fotheringay, in the 45th year of her age. She died professing the religion in which she was brought up, and to her adherence to which many of her miseries may be traced.

The conduct and character of the unfortunate Queen of Scots have been the subject of much controversy. "No inquiry," says Sir Walter Scott in his *History of Scotland*, "has been able to bring us to that clear opinion upon the guilt of Mary, which is expressed by many authors, or to guide us to that triumphant conclusion in favor of her innocence of all accession, direct or tacit, to the death of her husband, which others have maintained with the same obstinacy. The great error of marrying Bothwell, stained as he was by universal suspicion of Darnley's murder, is a spot upon her character for which we seek in vain an apology. What excuse she is to derive from the brutal ingratitude of Darnley; what from the cruelty and perfidy of the fiercest set of nobles who existed in any age; what from the manners of a time in which assassination was often esteemed a virtue, and revenge the discharge of a debt of honor, must be left to the charity of the reader."



ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

ALEXANDER, the son of Philip, succeeded at the age of twenty to the throne of Macedonia, on the death of his father, which took place three hundred and thirty-six years before Christ.

On the night of his birth, the great temple of Diana, at Ephesus, one of the most wonderful edifices ever erected by human skill, was burnt to the ground by Erastrotatus, who madly hoped to perpetuate his memory by the incendiary deed.

The first warlike expedition of Alexander was against the barbarians to the north of his kingdom. During his engagements here, a powerful confederacy was formed against him by the Grecian states; and the Thebans, upon a false report of his death, killed all the Macedonians within the reach of their fury.

Alexander speedily came against their city, took it, and utterly destroyed it; six thousand of the inhabitants were slain, and thirty thousand were sold for slaves. This dreadful example of severity spread the terror of his arms through all Greece, and those who had been opposed to him were compelled to submit.

A general assembly of the states of Greece was now summoned at Corinth. Alexander, as heir of his father, was made generalissimo against the Persians, and he immediately commenced preparations for the momentous expedition.

Alexander set off with an army of only thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse, and provisions for a single month. He crossed the Hellespont, and marched through Asia Minor towards Persia. Darius Codomannus resolved to crush at once this inconsiderate youth, and met him on

the banks of the Granicus, with one hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand horse. The Greeks swam the river, their king leading the van, and attacking the astonished Persians, left twenty thousand dead upon the field, and put to flight their whole army. Darius was left almost alone in his lofty chariot; he had but just time to get on horseback, and gallop away from the battle.

Alexander now sent home his fleet, leaving to his army the sole alternative, that they must subdue Asia, or perish. Prosecuting their course for some time, without resistance, the Greeks were attacked by the Persians in a narrow valley of Silicia, near the town of Issus. The Persian host amounted to four hundred thousand, but their situation was such that only a small part could come into action, and they were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The loss of the Persians was one hundred and ten thousand; that of the Greeks very inconsiderable.

After the battle of Issus, Alexander besieged Tyre, but the Tyrians resisted him with great bravery for seven months. At length, the city was taken by storm, and thirty thousand of its population were sold for slaves, and two thousand were crucified upon the sea-shore, for no other crime than that of defending the country from an invader. The shocking cruelty of Alexander to this city stamps him with eternal infamy.

Incensed with the Jews for not sending supplies to his army, when besieging Tyre, Alexander marched to Jerusalem, resolved upon its ruin. Jaddus, the high priest, and all the other priests of the temple, proceeded from the city to meet him, and to implore his mercy. Alexander no sooner saw the

venerable procession, than he paid the high priest all the tokens of profound respect, and left them in satisfaction and peace, without the least molesting the temple or the city.

The whole of Syria had submitted to Alexander; Gaza had followed the fate of Tyre; ten thousand of its inhabitants were sold into slavery; and its brave defender, Belis, was dragged at the wheels of his victor's chariot, — an act far more disgraceful to the conqueror than to the conquered.

The taking of Gaza opened Egypt to Alexander, and the whole country submitted without opposition. Amidst the most incredible fatigues, he led his army through the deserts of Lybia, to visit the temple of his pretended father, Jupiter of Ammon. When intoxicated with the pride of success, he listened to the base flattery of the priests; and, upon the foolish presumption of his being the son of that Lybian god, he received *adoration from his followers*.

Returning from Egypt, Alexander traversed Assyria, and was met at Arbela by Darius, at the head of seven hundred thousand men. Peace, on very advantageous terms, was offered by the Persians, but was haughtily rejected. The Persians were defeated at Arbela, with the loss of three hundred thousand men, and Darius fled from province to province. At length, betrayed by Bessus, one of his own satraps, he was cruelly murdered, and the Persian empire submitted to the conqueror, B. C. 330.

After the battle of Arbela, Alexander marched in triumph to the cities of Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis, where he found amazing treasures. Excited by intemperance, and instigated by a wicked woman, he set fire to the magnificent palaces of the Persian kings, that no one should enjoy them but himself.

Alexander, firmly persuaded that the sovereignty of the whole habitable globe had been decreed him, now projected the conquest of India. He penetrated to the Ganges, defeated Porus, and would have proceeded to the Indian Ocean, if the spirit of his army had kept pace with his ambition; but his troops, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed. Indignant that he had found an end to his conquests, he abandoned himself to every excess of luxury and debauchery.

Returning again to Babylon, laden with the riches and plunder of the east, he entered that celebrated city in the greatest pomp and magnificence. His return to it,

however, was foretold by his magicians as fatal, and their prediction was fulfilled.

Giving himself up still further to intoxication and vice; of every kind, he at last, after a fit of drunkenness, was seized with a fever, which at intervals deprived him of his reason, and after a few days put a period to his existence; and he died at Babylon, on the 21st of April, in the thirty-second year of his age, after a reign of twelve years and eight months, of the most brilliant success.

His death was so sudden and premature, that many attributed it to poison. Antipater has been accused of administering the fatal draught, but it was never proved against him.

In the character of Alexander we shall find little to admire. In the early part of his career he had shown many excellent and noble traits of character; but he met with such great and continual success in all his undertakings, that his disposition was ruined by it. At last he began to think himself something more than mortal, and made himself a god.

Yet so far was Alexander from being a god, that some of his actions were unworthy of a man. One of his worst deeds was the murder of Clytus, an old officer, who had fought under King Philip. He had once saved Alexander's life in battle, and on this account he was allowed to speak freely to him.

One night, after having become intoxicated, Alexander began to brag of his own exploits, and he spoke more highly of them than old Clytus thought he deserved; accordingly he told Alexander that his father, Philip, had done much greater things than ever he had done.

The monarch was so enraged, that he snatched a spear from one of his attendants, and gave Clytus a mortal wound; but, when he saw the old man's bloody corpse extended on the floor, he was seized with horror; — he had murdered the preserver of his own life!

Alexander's remorse did not, however, last long. He still insisted on being a god, the son of Jupiter Ammon; and he was highly offended with a philosopher, named Callisthenes, because he refused to worship him; for no other crime, Callisthenes was put into an iron cage, and tormented, till he killed himself in despair.

After Alexander's return from India to Persia, he met with a great misfortune, — it was the loss of his dearest friend, Hephestion, who died of a disease which he had

contracted by excessive drinking. For three days afterwards Alexander lay prostrate on the ground, and would take no food.

He erected a funeral pile of spices, and other precious materials, so that it was as costly as a palace would have been. The lifeless body of Hephestion was then placed on the summit. Alexander then set fire to the pile, and stood mournfully looking on, while the corpse of his friend was consumed to ashes.

There was once a certain pirate, who

made great havoc among the shipping of the Mediterranean Sea. He was taken prisoner by the Macedonian soldiers, and brought before Alexander, who asked him by what right he committed his robberies. "I am a robber by the same right that you are a conqueror," was the reply: "the only difference between us is, that I have but a few men, and can do but little mischief, while you have a large army, and can do a great deal."



CROMWELL.

OLIVER CROMWELL, Protector of England, Ireland and Scotland, was born at Huntingdon, April 25th, 1599, and descended from a family which traced its genealogy up to the barons of the eleventh century. His father was a member of Parliament, but having a numerous family to support, undertook a large brewing establishment. Oliver was educated at a grammar school, and at the age of seventeen entered Cambridge, where he divided his time between his studies and athletic sports. Though dissolute in his early youth, he reformed at twenty-one, when he married, and became connected with a religious sect, which afterwards became formidable in a political point of view. In 1625, he became a member of Parliament, under the reign of Charles I., and took sides with Hampden and St. John

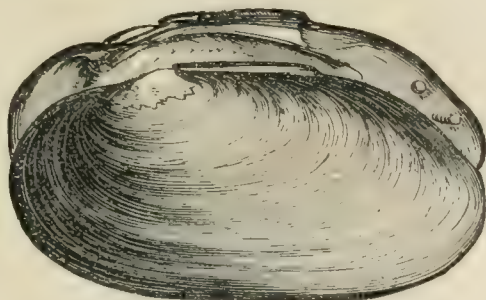
against the abuses of public administration. For many years he took the part of the people and gained great popularity.

The king carried his arbitrary measures so far, that Cromwell, together with Hampden, Pym and some others, were on the point of embarking for New England, when they were prevented by the king. Civil war broke out in 1642, being hastened by Cromwell's publication of a declaration of grievances called the *Remonstrance*. He now distinguished himself as a general, as a puritan, and a republican. The prospect, however, which opened before him, stimulated his ambitious views, and his natural craftiness of disposition soon led him into the windings of intrigue. The Independents were victorious on every side, and Charles, who had taken refuge with the

Scotch army, was sold by them to Parliament, which now possessed supreme power. He was soon after executed; Cromwell, who was not naturally cruel or sanguinary, not daring to oppose the torrent of fanaticism in the army which he had so much contributed to swell. He now led the army to Ireland, where he received a submissive welcome, and where, in six months, he completely checked the royalist party. He next proceeded to Scotland, where Charles Stuart, afterwards Charles II., had been proclaimed king.

Cromwell harassed the royal army by skilful marches, and cutting it off from its points of support, and finally totally defeated it at Worcester. He now exerted a weighty influence on the supreme direction of public affairs, and finding the Parliament in the way of his advancement, boldly attacked it with three hundred men, and dispersed it. A new Parliament or council being called, Cromwell was finally (Dec. 12, 1653) declared sole governor of the commonwealth, under the name of *Lord Protector*, with an

assistant council of twenty-one men. He governed for five years with firmness and dignity. The navigation act, from which may be dated the rise of the naval power of England, was framed upon his suggestion. The Dutch war occurred during his protectorate, and was carried on by his generals through many well-contested battles. He died in 1658, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Most of the European courts went into mourning for him. Cromwell was abstemious, industrious and exact; he possessed extraordinary penetration and knowledge of human nature; he was bold, intrepid, and decided, to a degree rarely equalled. No obstacle deterred him, and he was never at a loss for expedients. He made religion and virtue a cloak, though it cannot be doubted that in his earlier years he was, as he himself said, "in a state of grace." Three years after his burial, his body was dug up by order of Charles II., and was hanged and buried under the gallows.



Pearl Oyster.

THE PEARL FISHERY.

THE greatest of all pearl fisheries is carried on in the months of April and May on the western bank of the Island of Ceylon, under the supervision of the British government, to whom the island belongs. The privilege of diving is sold by auction, and the period of commencing and closing the fishery is regulated by law. The signal for commencing is given at day-break, when the sea is the calmest, by the discharge of a cannon; and immediately a countless fleet of boats, who have arrived at the scene of action, cast anchor, and the divers descend into the depths of the sea. In order that they may descend through the water with greater rapidity, they place their feet on a

stone attached to the end of a rope, the other end of which is made fast to the boat. They carry with them another rope, the extremity of which is held by two men in the boat, whilst to the lower part, which descends with the diver, there is fastened a net or basket. Besides these, every diver is furnished with a strong knife to detach the oysters, or to serve as a defensive weapon in case he should be attacked by a shark. As soon as they touch ground, they gather the oysters with all possible speed, and having filled their net, quit their hold of the rope with the stone — the weight of which enabled them to remain at the bottom — pull that which is held by the sailors in the

boat, and rapidly ascend to the surface of the water.

The pearl is a *malady* of the oyster, a sort of excrescence or wart, and requires seven years to develop itself completely. If the shell is not fished at that time, the animal dies, and the pearl is lost. When taken, the oysters are left in a hot sun to putrefy,

in which state, if vigorously washed with sea-water, they easily render the pearls they may contain. They are afterwards cleansed and assorted, with reference to their size, regularity and color. Troops of Indian artisans are always on the spot to drill or pierce them, which they do with extraordinary rapidity and correctness.



QUEEN VICTORIA.

WILLIAM IV., King of England, dying without children, Victoria, the daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent, was called to the throne in 1837, at the early age of eighteen. Her accession was hailed with more than ordinary enthusiasm, and all parties vied with each other in testifying their allegiance to the youthful sovereign. She was married on the 10th of Feb., 1840, to her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

The principal events of her reign, thus far, have been the war carried on by the British in China, the result of which has been to compel that great country to open

four of her ports to the commerce of Christendom; the passage of the new postage law, by which the rate on letters, for any distance within the British Empire, was reduced to one penny; the war with Afghanistan; the famine in Ireland; the repeal of the corn laws; and, lastly, a thorough modification of the navigation laws. The queen has a numerous family, and is represented as a lady of amiable manners, of accomplished education, and of a style of countenance, which, if not beautiful, is pleasing and striking from its ingenuousness and affability.



BOTANICAL WONDERS.

THE number of known species of plants in the world is about fifty thousand, and there are doubtless fifty thousand more.

The largest tree in the world is in Africa, where several negro families reside in the trunk.

The largest flower in the world is found in Java, and is six feet in diameter.

The oak will live four thousand years.

The "cow-tree," in South America, produces milk, from which the people obtain regular supplies.

The *Nepenthus*, or pitcher plant, of India, furnishes water in its leaves, which not only have pitchers, but covers to them.

The pear leaf has twenty-four thousand pores to the square inch, on the under side. The pink has twenty-eight thousand five hundred. Some plants have as many as one hundred and sixty thousand.

There are one hundred and forty different species of oak in the world, seventy of which are found in America, and thirty in Europe.

The largest oak in the world is one in Dorsetshire, England, whose trunk measures sixty-nine feet in circumference.

There are forty different species of pine. The white pine grows to the height of one hundred and eighty feet. The *Pinus Douglassii*, on the Columbia river, is the tallest tree in the world, as it grows to the stupendous height of two hundred feet. The greatest body of timber ever measured from a single tree was from the *Pinus Lambertiana*, on the Missouri river.

Lilies are natives of North America, China, Germany, Liberia, and New Holland.

A single barley-corn in Paris produced

fifty-five culms, or stalks, containing one hundred and eighty thousand corns of barley.

The celebrated botanist, Ray, counted thirty-two thousand seeds in the head of a poppy.

There are three hundred and sixty thousand seeds in the capsule of a tobacco plant.

There are no less than nine thousand different varieties of roses, and fifty varieties of pinks.

It is supposed by many naturalists that the elm-tree produces five hundred and thirty thousand seeds each year.

Barley has been sowed with success one hundred and forty years after it was produced. Wheat may be kept with the germinating principle for ages. Seeds of different grasses will vegetate after having been buried in the earth one thousand years.

The Canada thistle, the enemy of all farmers, is a native of Canada, but it has

crossed the Atlantic by means of wings with which its seeds are provided.

The yew-trees of Surrey, England, stood in the days of Julius Cæsar. There is an apple-tree in Hartford, Connecticut, two hundred years old; a fig-tree in Palestine seven hundred and eighty years old, a live oak in Louisiana one thousand years old; a pine-tree in Asia Minor one thousand eight hundred and ninety years old. A cedar on Mount Lebanon is two thousand one hundred and twenty years old; a chestnut on Mount Etna, Sicily, two thousand six hundred years old; a sycamore on the Bosphorus four thousand years old!

Some person, who had nothing else to do, has ascertained that there are five hundred and fifty thousand grains in a bushel of wheat, five hundred and twenty thousand of barley, one million two hundred and sixty thousand of oats, twenty-seven thousand of horse-beans.



LAMARTINE.

ALPHONSE DE LAMARTINE was born on the 21st of Oct., 1792, in the little village of Macon, to the south-east of Paris. His youth passed in study and travel, and in 1813, he commenced in Italy his first work, *The Harmonies*. This book became very famous, and Lamartine at once took rank

among the first of European poets. He became secretary of legation at Naples and London, and afterwards chargé d'affaires at Turin, where he published the "Last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage." In 1832, he set out on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and had an ample opportunity to

gratify his natural taste for luxury and ostentation. He sailed over the Mediterranean in his own ship, and wrote his journal as he sailed, reclining under an awning on the deck. In crossing the desert, he had a body-guard of eighteen horsemen, and his tent was stored with all the luxuries of the season. He continued writing poetry and history, improvising, praying and singing, till 1846, when he turned his attention towards politics, and made his first speech in the Chamber of Deputies. Even here his peculiar ways of thinking, and his poetic turn of mind, were evident in everything he did. He spoke in favor of a new European system of regeneration of the Holy Land, foundlings, and other congenial topics. On the 24th of Feb., 1848, he pronounced the doom of the Count of Paris, refusing the

regency in the name of the people. He became the acknowledged head of the Provisional Government, acting as minister of foreign affairs. He was afterwards elected to the French Chamber and was one of the five who composed the executive commission, and who resigned their powers to Cavaignac on the breaking out of the insurrection in June, 1848. Since then his political influence has been rapidly diminishing, and he will probably soon return to his own cloud-land, from which he descended to mingle with the affairs of government, where experience is more desirable than theory, and practical views more necessary than imagination and poetry. Lamartine must, however, be regarded as one of the most gifted and philanthropic men of the age.



PITCAIRN'S ISLAND.

THIS small island, which is situated in the Pacific, was discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1777. It is but seven miles in circumference, is very lofty, with precipitous sides, and has no anchorage. Some of the rocks are volcanic, and the highest point above the level of the sea is 1109 feet. The soil which covers the rocks consists of clay mixed with sand; it is very rich, and of great depth. This land is well wooded, and it is supposed could easily maintain a population of 1000 souls. The first colony was planted here in 1790, and consisted of

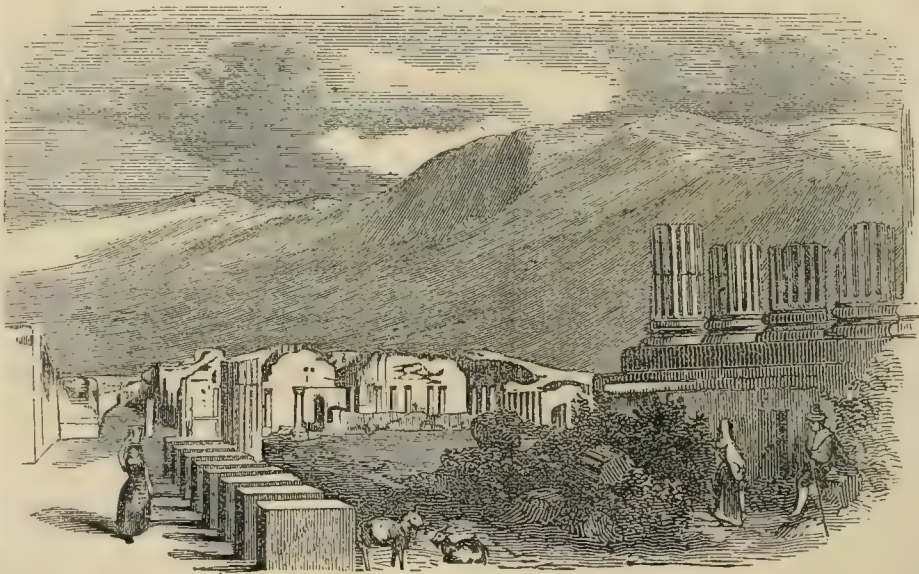
six Englishmen, and twelve Polynesian women, whose offspring forms the whole population of the island. The Englishmen had been sailing on board the ship *Bounty*; they mutinied, and, taking possession of the vessel, made a voyage to Otaheite, where they took on board some bread-fruit trees and a few Otaheite women, and returning finally settled in Pitcairn Island. It was visited by an American vessel in 1809, and in 1826 was surveyed. There being but one well of good water in the island, a report prevailed, in 1831, that the inhabi-

tants were suffering, and a vessel was sent to remove those who were willing to go to Otaheite. At this time the number of the inhabitants amounted to 87, and a part of them accepted the offer, and left the settlement; finding, however, that they had not gained by the change, they returned the following year.

The colonists are a fine and robust people, high-spirited and intelligent, and speak both the Tahitian and English language fluently. Their food is chiefly vegetable. Yams, which are abundant and of excellent quality, form the staple article. Cocoanuts, bananas, and pumpkins, also grow in profusion. They have plenty of swine, goats, and domestic fowls, and fish abounds in the sea. Before their removal to Otaheite, the islanders were distinguished for their patriarchal simplicity, modified by the English character; but since that time they have

taken to drinking ardent spirits, the preparation of which they had learnt in Otaheite.

For many years, an old English sailor, named John Adams, was the leader of the colony; he seems to have been a most excellent and simple-hearted man. Under his guardianship, the inhabitants lived in the most perfect harmony, received proper ideas of religion and morality, and were grateful to the Almighty for the many blessings they enjoyed. "Their habitations," says a recent account, "are very neat, and the village of Pitcairn forms a pretty square; they are a simple, unoffensive race, and are interesting as forming a link, in person, intellect and habits, between the European and Polynesian race." These people were visited by an English vessel in 1847, and they appear to be still happy and thriving. Their whole number is about eighty.



POMPEII.

POMPEII was an ancient city of Campania, formerly celebrated for its commerce, and situated twelve miles to the south-east of the present site of Naples. It was destroyed by an earthquake, A. D. 63, and, together with Herculaneum, was buried by a stream of lava and showers of ashes during an eruption of Mt. Vesuvius fourteen years later. It remained concealed for nearly seventeen hundred years. In the year 1738, however, the Spaniards having conquered the country,

Charles of Spain took up his residence at Portici, a village built upon the spot of the ancient Herculaneum. A well being here dug to a considerable depth, traces of buildings were found, and excavations being pushed to a greater depth, the theatre of Herculaneum was laid open, and an impetus given to further discoveries. In 1750, Pompeii was explored. The bed of ashes was about eighteen feet in depth. The ruins of an extensive amphitheatre and of

many handsome buildings were discovered. Twenty-seven female skeletons were found near a door, and many ornaments for the neck and arms, silver and bronze vessels, and other works of art. It is supposed that most of the inhabitants had time to save themselves by flight.

Two thirds of the town are still covered, but it is estimated that it was originally three fourths of a mile in length by nearly half a mile in breadth. The walls are from eighteen to twenty feet high, and contained many main gates, of which six have been uncovered. Twenty streets, fifteen feet wide, paved with lava, and having foot-ways three feet broad, have also been excavated. The houses are joined together, and have generally only two stories, with terraces for roofs. The fronts are often shops, with inscriptions, frescos and ornaments of every kind. The principal rooms are in the rear; in the centre is a court, which often contains a marble fountain. A forum, surrounded with handsome buildings, two theatres, an arena, temples, baths, fountains, statues, urns, utensils of all sorts, &c., have been

discovered. Most of the objects of curiosity have been deposited in the museum of Portici and Naples; among them are a great number of manuscripts.

The history of some of these manuscripts is curious; one thousand six hundred and ninety-six were discovered at once in Herculaneum, and the expectations of antiquarians were raised very high as regards the discoveries to be made from them. They have, however, resisted almost every attempt made to unroll them; and, in 1819, only four hundred and seven out of the whole number had yielded. They are of a cylindrical form, having the appearance of tobacco rolls, and are very much charred by the action of the hot ashes. Out of these four hundred and seven only eighty-eight are legible; twenty-four others had been sent as presents to foreign princes, and only about eighty of the remaining one thousand two hundred and sixty-five presented any chance of successful unrolling or deciphering them. The contents of those which were legible have from time to time been published by learned societies.

MISCELLANEOUS CURIOSITIES.

SOMNAMBULISM. — Somnambulism literally means sleep-walking, but, in its more extended sense, it includes all the phenomena that take place, when a person apparently insensible to external objects acts as if he were in a state of consciousness. Many curious accounts have been given of individuals in this state, from which we select the following as the most remarkable. It is given on the authority of the Bishop of Bordeaux.

"A young ecclesiastic was in the habit of getting up during the night, in a state of somnambulism, of going to his room, taking pen, ink, and paper, and composing and writing sermons. In order to ascertain whether he made any use of his eyes, the bishop held a piece of pasteboard under his chin, to prevent him from seeing the paper upon which he was writing; but he continued to write on without being incommoded in the slightest degree. The paper he was using was taken away, and another substituted in its place, but he immediately perceived the change. He wrote pieces of music while in this state, and in the same manner, with his eyes closed; the words he placed under the music. It happened upon one occasion that he wrote the words

in too large a character, so that they did not stand under the corresponding notes: he soon perceived the error, blotted out the part, and re-wrote it with great exactness."

Gassendi tells us of a man who used to rise and dress himself in his sleep, in order to go to a cellar to draw wine from a cask. He appeared to see in the dark as well as in a clear day; but if he awoke in the cellar while in this state, he was obliged to grope and feel his way back to his bed. He always answered as if awake, but in the morning remembered nothing of what had happened. This species of somnambulism is often hereditary.

In this country there have been several extraordinary cases of somnambulism. One of the most remarkable was that of Rachel Baker, at Springfield, who, a few years since, astonished the world by her performances. In her sleep she could read books placed behind her head, could read sealed letters, and even read and translate languages with which she was entirely ignorant when awake. There have been many well attested instances of a similar nature. Somnambulism seems to be closely connected with mesmerism, of which we shall hereafter give an account.

CURIOUS LETTER. — The following letter is said to have been written by a newly-married lady, to her friend and confidant. Her husband was a jealous old curmudgeon, and insisted upon her showing him every letter she wrote.

"I cannot be satisfied, my dearest friend, blest as I am in the matrimonial state, unless I pour into your friendly bosom, which has ever been in unison with mine, the various sensations which swell, with the liveliest emotions of pleasure, my almost bursting heart. I tell you, my dear husband is the most amiable of men. I have now been married seven weeks, and have never found the least reason to repent the day that joined us. My husband is both in person and manners far from resembling ugly, cross, old, disagreeable, and jealous monsters, who think by confining, to secure a wife, it is his maxim to treat as a bosom friend and confidant, and not as a plaything or a menial slave, the woman chosen to be his companion. Neither party, he says, should always obey implicitly, but each yield to the other by turns. An ancient maiden aunt, near seventy, a cheerful, venerable, and pleasant old lady, lives in the house with us. She is the delight of both young and old; she is civil to all the neighborhood around — generous and charitable to the poor. I am convinced my husband loves nothing more than he does me; he flatters me more than a glass, and his intoxication (for so I must call the excess of his love,) often makes me blush for the unworthiness of its object, and wish I could be more deserving of the man whose name I bear. To say all in one word, my dear, and to crown the whole, my former gallant lover is now my indulgent husband; my fondness is returned, and I might have had a prince, without the felicity I find in him. Adieu!"

N. B. We give our readers a key to unlock the secret of this letter: — Read the first and every alternate line only, and the trick will be seen.

ANAGRAMS. — Amendment — Ten mad men.

Astronomers — { Moon Starers.
 { No more stars.

Breakfast — Fat Bakers.

Democratical — Comical trade.

Encyclopedia — A nice cold pie.

Gallantries — All great sin.

Lawyers — Sly ware.

Penitentiary — Nay, I repent it.

Potentates — Ten tea-pots.

Punishment — Nine thumps.

Revolution — To love ruin.

Sovereignty — 'T is ye governor.

Telegraphs — Great helps.

THE LAST MOMENTS OF CELEBRATED MEN. — When the Roman army had at length become masters of Syracuse by stratagem, which the tactics of that consummate engineer, *Archimedes*, prevented them from taking by force, he was shut up in his closet, and so intent on a geometrical demonstration that he was equally insensible to the shouts of the victors and the outcries of the vanquished. He was calmly drawing the lines of a diagram, when a soldier abruptly entered his room and held a sword to his breast. "Hold, friend," said *Archimedes*, "one moment, and my demonstration will be finished." The soldier, surprised at his unconcern at a time of extreme peril, resolved to carry him to *Marcellus*; but as the philosopher put under his arm a small box full of spheres, dials, and other instruments, the soldier, thinking the box to be filled with gold, could not resist the temptation, and therefore killed him on the spot.

It is related of the celebrated French chemist, *Lavoisier*, that when he was condemned to death by *Robespierre*, he requested fourteen days in order to mature some important discovery; but the monster refused the boon, and sent him to the guillotine.

The Emperor *Adrian*, at the point of death, made that celebrated address to his soul, which is so happily translated by Pope in the well known poem, "The Dying Christian to his Soul."

Roscommon, a few moments before he expired, with energy of voice, uttered two lines of his own version of "*Dies Irae*" — *Waller* in his last moments repeated two lines from *Virgil*; and *Chaucer* took his farewell of all human vanities by a moral ode, entitled, "A Ballad made by Geoffrey Chaucer, upon his Dethebedde lying in his grete anguyse."

Philip Strozzi, when imprisoned by Cosmo the First, Grand Duke of Tuscany, was apprehensive of the danger to which he might expose his friends, from the confessions the rack might extort from him. Having attempted every exertion for the liberty of his country, he considered it no crime therefore to die, and fell by his own sword, he having previously engraved on the mantelpiece of the chimney, a line of *Virgil*, which may thus be translated:

"May an avenger rise from this blood!"

When *Malesherbes* was dying, he repimanded his nurse for making use of a solecism in her language! And when his confessor represented to him the felicities

of a future state in low expressions, the dying critic interrupted him: "Hold your tongue," said he, "your wretched style only makes me out of conceit with them."

De Lagny, who was intended by his friends for the law, having fallen on a copy of Euclid, found it so congenial to his disposition, that he devoted himself to mathematics. In his last moments, when he retained no further recollection of the friends that surrounded his bed, one of them, perhaps to make a philosophical experiment, thought proper to ask him the square of 12; the dying mathematician instantly, and perhaps without knowing that he answered it, replied, "144."

Such persons realize that beautiful fiction of the ancients, who represent the swans of Cayster singing at their death; and have been compared to a nightingale singing with a thorn in its breast.

THE MIRAGE.—The mirage is an optical illusion, which often takes place in the deserts of Arabia, Syria, and Persia. The phenomenon consists in the fact that travelers, crossing the desert, seem to see, at some distance before them, a transparent lake or flowing river, reflecting on its glassy bosom all surrounding objects. The traveler soon finds to his cost, however, that he cannot reach the water for which his parching thirst and the arid heat of the desert make him so ardently long. The shores of the lake or the banks of the river recede as he approaches, and its dimensions are consequently contracted; sometimes it disappears bodily from before his eyes, or forms itself anew at a distance beyond him. The closest observation will not enable him to detect any difference between the exhibition before him and the appearance of real water. The illusion is altogether so perfect, that *the Siraub*, as it is sometimes called, is often taken for real water, unless local knowledge or the circumstances of the place lead one to suppose it impossible or unlikely. This phenomenon is not confined to land, being frequently observed at sea.

One of the most striking instances of its appearing at sea, is that which was observed and recorded by Capt. Scoresby, in 1820, in the Greenland seas. His fleet of eighteen or nineteen sail were navigating at a little distance apart, when they appeared to undergo a great change of magnitude and of form, and when examined from the mast-head with a telescope, appeared to undergo

some extraordinary changes. One ship had an inverted image above it, another two distinct images in the air, a third was distorted by elongation, the masts being nearly of twice the proper height, while others underwent contraction. This form of the mirage is called "suspension."

THE FATA MORGANA.—This phenomenon may be classed among the same species of optical illusions as the mirage. It takes place only in the straits of Messina, Sicily, and is regarded with superstitious reverence by the inhabitants of that region. It is thus described by one who witnessed the scene some years since: "When the rising sun shines from a point, whence its incident ray forms an angle of 45° on the Bay of Rizzio, and the surface of the water is not disturbed by wind or by the current, the spectator being placed on an eminence of the city, with his back to the sun and his face to the sea; on a sudden he sees appear in the water before him, a succession of multiplied objects; i. e. numberless series of pilasters, arches, castles, well-delineated regular columns, lofty towers, palaces with balconies and windows, extended alleys of trees, delightful plains with herds and flocks, &c., all in their natural colors and proper action, and passing rapidly in succession along the surface of the sea, during the whole short period that the above-mentioned causes remain." Sometimes these objects are again represented in the air, higher than the first series, but less distinctly; sometimes the objects on the sea will be vividly colored or fringed with red, green, blue, and other prismatic colors. All these appearances are derived from real objects on shore, reflected in all senses, magnified, mingled, and multiplied. Those who have seen this remarkable phenomenon, declare that its beauty and grace far surpass anything which it is possible to imagine. It takes place rarely, and can hardly be foreseen or predicted.

THE POLE AND BASIN.—Dean Swift's barber told him one day that he had taken a public house. "And what's your sign?" said the Dean. "Oh, the Pole and Basin; and if your worship would just write me a few lines to put upon it, by way of motto, I have no doubt but it would draw me plenty of customers." The dean took out his pencil and wrote the following couplet, which long graced the barber's sign:

"Rove not from pole to pole, but step in here,
Where nought excels the shaving but the beer."

REASONS FOR DRINKING. — Mr. A. Drinks because his doctor has recommended him to take a little.

Mr. B. Because his doctor has ordered him not, and he hates such quackery.

Mr. C. Just takes a drop because he's wet.

Mr. D. Drinks because he's dry.

Mr. E. Because he feels something rising in his stomach.

Mr. F. Because he feels a kind of sinking in his stomach.

Mr. G. Because he's going to see a friend off to California.

Mr. H. Because he's got a friend come home from California.

Mr. I. Because he's so hot.

Mr. K. Because he's so cold.

Mr. L. Because he's got a pain in his head.

Mr. M. Because he's got a pain in his side.

Mr. N. Because he's got a pain in his back.

Mr. O. Because he's got a pain in his chest.

Mr. P. Because he's got a pain all over him.

Mr. Q. Because he feels light and happy.

Mr. R. Because he feels heavy and miserable.

Mr. S. Because he's married.

Mr. T. Because he is n't married.

Mr. V. Because he likes to see his friends round him.

Mr. W. Because he's got no friends, and enjoys a glass by himself.

Mr. X. Because his uncle left him a legacy.

Mr. Y. Because his aunt cut him off with a shilling.

BEDS.

Strew then, oh strew,
Our bed of rushes;
Here may we rest,
Till morning blushes!

IN the days of Elizabeth, the peasants used logs of wood for pillows. In the time of the Hebrew kingdom the bed resembled a divan; consisting of a low elevation, running round three sides of a small room, and stuffed with cushions. In the early times the Romans slept on leaves: afterwards they used hay and straw. Till the close of the thirteenth century, straw was common in the chambers of palaces. Rushes were also sometimes used for beds, as the preceding extract from an old English song shows. To the English belongs

the merit of having brought improvements in beds to the present state of perfection.

A GOSSAMER VEIL. — An ingenious German succeeded in making a veil of spiders' webs. He placed the spiders on a large glass frame, so that their work joined together in every direction. By inducing them to go several times over the same place, thick spots were produced, which resembled embroidery. The whole veil, though of large size, weighed only three grains and a half. A breath blew it up in the air, where it floated like a cloud.

AFFINITY.

Some water and oil
One day had a boil,
As down in a glass they were dropping,
And would not unite,
But continued to fight,
Without any prospect of stopping.
Some *pearlash* o'erheard,
And quick as a word,
He jumped in the midst of the clashing, —
When all three agreed,
And united with speed,
And soap was created for washing.

A QUEER MOUSE-TRAP. — Some time since, two or three young men of this county, belonging to the same house, had stationed themselves around a cupboard for the purpose of despatching all the rats and mice that passed out, while some one was punching with a stick behind the shelves and in the cracks of the house. One of the fellows had a wonderful propensity for holding his mouth wide open whenever particularly interested in any matter. He happened to be in this condition on the occasion alluded to, when a mouse, seeing it, and taking it, as we suppose, for a hole into which he might take refuge from his pursuers, ran in, and was actually swallowed alive by the man. This can be testified to by several respectable citizens, if disputed. — *Sandersville Telescope*.

LONG IMPRISONMENT. — A M. Dussault was immured in the Bastille, by order of Cardinal Richelieu, on the 20th of Nov., 1631. Eleven years after, the cardinal received a letter from Dussault imploring for deliverance. The letter, it is supposed, was never read, for it was never answered; and it was not till the 20th June, 1692, that Dussault was set at liberty. He had been sixty-one years a prisoner!



CURIOSITIES OF GEOLOGY.

In another part of our work we have given an account of some of the monstrous animals which geological researches assure

us once dwelt upon the earth. But there are still other wonders unfolded by geology, which though so minute as to elude the unaided vision, are not the less amazing to the philosophic mind than those which astonish us by their magnitude.

An instance of this kind is furnished by *silicious marl*, which is a deposit much resembling the calcareous marl, both of which are found a few inches thick beneath beds of peat and mud in primary regions. The description given of it is, that when pure it is white, and nearly as light as the carbonate of magnesia; but it is usually more or less mixed with clay. By analysis, it is found to be nearly pure silica; and what is most wonderful is the discovery, that it is almost entirely composed of the silicious shields or skeletons of those microscopic animals called *infusoria* or animalculæ, which have lived and died in countless numbers in the ponds at the bottom of which this substance has been deposited. The animals are not often discernible without the aid of powerful microscopes.

To a Prussian naturalist, Prof. Ehrenberg, belongs the honor of discovering their remarkable relation to geological science. In the course of his investigations, he has described seven hundred and twenty-two living species, which exist in countless numbers in fluids, and even in the fluids of

living and healthy animals. These creatures were supposed to be very simple in their organization,—a kind of animated atoms; but the naturalist just mentioned has discovered in them mouth, teeth, muscles, stomach, nerves, glands, eyes, and organs of reproduction. Some of the smaller animalculæ are said to be not more than the twenty-four thousandth part of an inch in diameter, and the thickness of the skin of their stomachs not more than the fifty millionth part of an inch.

The infinitesimal minuteness of these animals may be seen from what Leeuwenhoek states,—that one billion of the animalculæ, such as occur in common water, would not altogether be so large as a grain of sand; and Ehrenberg estimates that five hundred millions of them are actually living in a single drop of water. They are found in the red-colored snow of the Alps; and it is very curious, that, if the snow has been melted but a short time, so as to become a little warmer than the freezing point, the animals die *because they cannot endure so much heat*. These animals are of various shapes, and bear different names. Some of their shields resemble a tubular chain. But the most wonderful fact relating to them is the incredible number of their skeletons or shields found in a fossil state, in various districts, actually constituting the whole mass of soils and rocks, several feet thick, and many acres in extent. Many strata are entirely composed of the shields or skeletons of infusoria; and in Sweden an edible earth, which is used with flour for bread, resembling fine flour, and celebrated for its nutritious qualities, wholly consists of the shells of microscopic animalcules. This earth occurs in layers nearly thirty feet in thickness.

Deposits formed by the infusoria are constantly in process of formation, wherever a condition suitable to their economy exists. In lakes, marshes, and peat-bogs, the animalcules which inhabit the water pass through their brief period of existence, and their indestructible skeletons then sink to the bottom and form new deposits. Professor Bailey discovered in a peat-bog, near West Point, layers, several hundred yards in extent, of a white earthy substance, which is wholly made up of the silicious shells of these animals. The polishing slate of Bilin, in Germany, which forms a bed fourteen feet thick, and the eatable earth of Luneburg, a similar bed twenty feet thick, are composed of these animal remains. Yet it would take, it is said, forty-one thousand

millions of their skeletons to make a cubic inch; their weight being only two hundred and twenty grains. A single shield or skeleton weighs about the one hundred and eighty-seven millionth of a grain.

Entire masses of flint are thus composed of the fossilized remains of beings as wonderful in their structure and organization as any of the colossal forms of animal existence. Some kinds of opal appear to have been formed of the dissolved silicious skeletons of animalcules; and the more durable forms are seen preserved in it like insects in amber. The well known bog-iron ore is ascertained to be composed of the thread-like carcasses of animalcules so inconceivably minute, that every cubic inch contains no less than two millions of millions of these once living organized forms; in other words more than two million times the number of the whole human race now existing over the entire face of the earth. The fossil animalculæ found in iron ochre is only the one twenty-first part of the thickness of a human hair; and one cubic inch of this ochre must contain one billion of the skeletons of these once living beings.

The deposits of which we are speaking are not confined to one country, but they appear to be common in all parts of the globe. They abound in Massachusetts; and specimens have been examined by Professor Hitchcock, from Barre, Manchester, Wrentham, North Bridgewater, Andover, &c. It may be proper to add, that some of these deposits belong to the tertiary, and some to other than alluvial formations; but it seemed proper, while treating of the subject, to introduce them here.

Peat may also be mentioned as one of the curiosities of geological investigation. This is a substance derived from the matter of decomposed vegetables. It can be formed only under a particular temperature, and to this effect moisture is essential. In hot climates it can be formed only under water, or in elevated places, as otherwise the decomposition of vegetable matter would be too rapid; but in cold climates it may be formed at the level of the sea. In England it is formed principally from a species of moss growing in damp situations. Forests also, which have been overthrown by storms, often contribute to form peat. In some instances, the beds are said to be more than forty feet thick. When perfectly formed, peat is destitute of a fibrous structure; when wet it is a black mud, and when dry it becomes a powder. It is chiefly confined to the colder parts of the globe, and is used for fuel.



MANIAS.

As there are many instances on record in which the bodies of men have been afflicted by epidemic diseases, so there are many in which their minds have been affected by pervading delusions. As the horses of the west are said to be sometimes beset with a *stampede*, so human society is often carried away by manias. The "Mississippi Scheme," the "South Sea Bubble," and the "Tulip Mania," are the most extraordinary instances of manias on record.

The Mississippi Scheme was a project started in France in 1718, by John Law, a Scotch financier. A company, possessing lands and privileges in Mississippi and in Louisiana, so dazzled the minds of the public with their description of the sum which might be realized by planting and commerce, that crowds came forward to make investment in the stock of this great society. The shares were greedily bought up, and even the unimproved parts of the new colony were actually sold for 30,000 livres the square league. The company promising an annual dividend of 2000 livres per share, the price rose from 550 to 8000 livres, and the mania for purchasing the stock spread over the nation like a tempest. Every class, clergy and laity, peers and plebeians, statesmen and princes, nay, even ladies, turned stock-jobbers, and outbid each other with such avidity, that in Nov., 1719, the stock sold for more than sixty times its original price. But a day of reckoning soon came;

the scheme exploded, and the institution became bankrupt, and Law was obliged to seek safety by flight.

The South Sea Bubble was much the same sort of delusion as the Mississippi Scheme. It was no less a project than to discharge the national debt of England by the instrumentality of the South Sea company; and a bill was passed in 1720 to authorize the company to assume this debt. The public mind was acted upon by various scandalous deceits, and the whole nation soon plunged headlong into the vortex of stock-jobbing; and luxury, vice, and extravagance, increased to a fearful degree. The bubble burst, however, in due time, and hurried thousands upon thousands of deluded victims into ruin and despair. The ministers, the Bank of England, members of the House of Commons, and societies of high standing, were concerned, and deeply implicated in these fraudulent transactions. Years passed before the country entirely recovered from the shock.

The Tulip was introduced into Holland early in the seventeenth century, and great attention being paid to its culture, most extraordinary speculations were entered into with respect to the roots of these plants. They were sold and resold at enormous prices, and roots of favorite species were often disposed of for the sum of \$1000. The speculation raged for three or four years, and was entered into by all classes

of society; noblemen, turf-diggers, merchants, chimney-sweeps, maid-servants, seamen, and clothes-women. Bonds were even given for imaginary roots, and these were bought and sold to an immense amount. While the prices continued to rise, everybody grew rich; many in humble circumstances made fortunes in a few months. No less than 10,000,000 florins were expended on this delusion, during three years, in Holland. The government suddenly interfering to check these speculations, the bubble burst as suddenly as it had been called into existence.



FATHER MATHEW.

THEOBALD MATHEW was born on the 10th of October, 1790, in the county of Tipperary, Ireland. His parents dying when he was quite young, he was adopted by Lady Elizabeth Mathew, and at the age of thirteen was sent to the Academy of Kilkenny, where he remained seven years. Feeling a desire to enter the church, he was removed to Maynooth, to pursue the necessary studies. He was ordained on Easter Sunday in 1814, and received the appointment of the mission to Cork.

From the moment of entering on his duties, he displayed the sincere conscientiousness of his character. The time not occupied in the sacred office was devoted to the poor and to the management of the temporal concerns of his flock. He was always prompt, faithful, and sympathizing, and rapidly acquired the confidence and affection of those about him; orphans were com-

mitted to his care; he filled the office of executor for hundreds of persons who left no friends behind them. He acted as magistrate as well as minister, and thus composed feuds and settled disturbances. He purchased the Botanic Gardens of Cork, and converted them into a cemetery, not for Catholics alone, but for members of every Christian denomination. He also commenced the construction of a Gothic church, on which he has expended about 14,000*l.* and it is not yet finished.

Thus, Father Mathew had, before the commencement of his temperance career, risen into the highest estimation amongst the people. The affability of his manners, the self-sacrificing tenor of his life, his readiness to assist them in all their troubles and sorrows, were eminently calculated to seize upon the quick sympathies of his countrymen, and make his word a law to

them. In no country had the vice of intoxication spread to such a degree as in Ireland. The poverty of the people, and the cheapness of whiskey, were the principal causes of this. Rev. Mr. Mathew was earnestly called upon to undertake the mission of reform in this field; he responded at once, and with characteristic zeal threw his whole soul into the cause.

Though meeting with discouraging obstacles at every step, during the first year and a half of his efforts, the vices, ignorance and obstinacy of his hearers gave way, and from that time to this his success in reclaiming the vicious and abandoned has had no parallel in ancient or modern history. His proselytes were not to be counted by dozens or scores, but by tens of thousands. On his arrival in the various villages, where he was to preach on temperance, the streets became filled; myriads poured in from the surrounding country; and so great was the rush of temperance votaries, that fences were often turned over, and railings carried away; the masses were so closely crowded together, that the most eager, in their desire to approach Mr. Mathew, ran along quietly and securely on the heads of the vast assemblage. It is said that in two days, in Galway, 100,000 persons took the pledge; on the road from Galway to Loughrea, 180,000, and in Dublin, during five days, about 70,000. There are few towns in Ireland that he has not visited with like success. In 1844, he visited England, and the thousands who hastened to receive the pledge testified to the need and progress of the remedy.

In the month of June, 1849, he left Cork for the United States, amid the acclamations and blessings of an immense crowd of his parishioners and his well-wishers. He arrived at New York in the beginning of July, where he was received with attention and respect by the city authorities. After spending a few days in repose, in examining the institutions of the city, and receiving visitors, he commenced in earnest the object of his visit—administering the pledge to all who desired to receive it at his hands, but especially to his own countrymen. The formula, as given by him, and repeated by those who were to sign the instrument, was as follows: "I promise, with the divine assistance, to abstain from all intoxicating liquors, cordials, cider, fruit liquors, &c., and do all in my power to prevent the spread of intemperance."

In regard to his success in Ireland, it may be said that he had a very impulsive people

to deal with; a people that actually, spite of his protestations and assertions to the contrary, believed that he could perform miracles, and touched his clothes in the hope of obtaining from them some magical virtue; and that the fire once kindled in Irish bosoms will burn on like a blaze in a tropical forest. But it must be remembered that no man, or combination of men, or efforts, had ever been able to stir this mobile mass, or to kindle this inflammable material before. The most extraordinary instance of the success of Father Mathew was in the case of the fishermen of Cloddagh, a small village on the coast of the Atlantic. This colony contains about 1000 inhabitants, whose habits are entirely different from those of the surrounding population. They live by themselves, never moving beyond the pale of their own community, speak the Celtic tongue only, holding the English in detestation; they never emigrate or enlist in the British service. The barren shore of the Bay of Galway has been the home of their fathers for centuries back, and continues to be theirs, while the ocean that foams before them is the field of their enterprise. Isolated as they have always been, yet they early contracted the habit of drunkenness, and intoxication was frequent among them. When Father Mathew visited this semi-civilized community, this people without sympathies out of their own circle, it is described as having been a most impressive sight to see them taking the pledge; it was taken by every individual in the colony, from the child of three years old to the grandparents and great-grand-parents in their second childhood.

In Father Mathew the Catholic priest is completely lost in the Christian. No man ever displayed a more disinterested zeal. He has spent all that he had of his own, and has diminished to an immense degree, the business of his brother and brother-in-law, who were distillers and dealers in spirits. He now owns the distillery of his brother, which he has refused to let for its original purposes; hoping to rent it for a cotton or carpet manufactory.

Father Mathew is now (1849) 59 years of age. He is straight and erect, and hardly appears 30. His complexion is sanguine and indicative of rude health; he himself is as good an argument for the salutary effects of temperance upon the constitution as can be desired. His manner is kind and winning, his patience inexhaustible. He seems to be the man for the cause, and the good he has done cannot be calculated.



ABD-EL-KADER.

S:DI-EL-HADGI ABD-EL-KADER OULED BEN MAHIDDIN is a native of Barbary, where he was born in 1806. He received from his father the best education an Arab can give, learned the Koran by heart, expounded its difficulties, and versed himself in the history of his country. He also became very adroit in corporeal exercises, and it was said of him that he handled the yatagan with the same facility as the chaplet of Mohammed. He made two pilgrimages to Mecca with his father, and on his return from the second married his first wife. About the year 1832, he and his father, who probably found their life too inactive for their disposition, travelled about the country, preaching a crusade against all Christians, and especially against the French settlements along the coast. They collected together 10,000 horsemen and made an attack upon the town of Oran, but were routed by the artillery of the French. Abd-el-Kader still sought, however, to extend the circle of his influence, and to centralize the forces of the Arabs. About this period, his father died, and the French general, Desmichels, committed that grand mistake which nearly lost Algeria to the French. This was no less than to constitute Abd-el-Kader sovereign

or Emir of the province of Oran, for the purpose of throwing on him the difficulties of occupying the country and civilizing the natives. The result was that the newly-made Emir, confident in his position and power, became so dangerous and annoying, that a committee was sent to Algeria, for the purpose of consulting on the spot as to the feasibility of holding the country and the practicability of giving it up. This committee decided upon retaining their hold. At last Gen. Trezel, who could no longer endure the impertinences of Abd-el-Kader, joined battle with him and was signally defeated: he was followed by Marshal Clausel, whose campaign was also disastrous; finally, General Bugeaud was sent against the Arab horde, and after gaining a decisive victory over them, made a treaty with the Emir, the stipulations of which were so extraordinary that it would seem that the latter was the victorious and not the conquered party. Three quarters of Algeria were delivered over to Abd-el-Kader, the French only retaining the province of Constantine and the provinces immediately around Oran and Algiers. Up to the year 1839, the Arab chief continued his hostility to the French settlers. In 1840, General

Bugeaud was commissioned to destroy the power of Abd-el-Kader in Algeria, and the war commenced in good earnest. In three years, he had lost everything he possessed, his forts, ammunition, magazine, and infantry. He now sought refuge among the Moors, where he excited some of them to take up arms in his favor. These demonstrations were, however, calmed by Bugeaud

at Isly, and by the Prince de Joinville at Tangiers and Morocco. Abd-el-Kader was now excommunicated by the Emperor of Morocco, and was captured by the French forces late in the year 1847, since which time he has been their prisoner; he is treated, however, with the respect and attention due to his rank. (1849.)



THIERS.

LOUIS ADOLPHE THIERS is a native of Mar-sailles, where he was born on the 16th of April, 1797. His father was a locksmith, and in humble circumstances. Thiers distinguished himself at school by his application to his studies, and soon went to Paris, where all the talent, wit, and wisdom, of France congregates, from the four corners of the kingdom. He obtained employment as assistant editor of a political journal, and in process of time became a leading man. He was very active during the revolution of 1830, and was influential in bringing Louis Philippe to the throne. Becoming a member of the Chamber of Deputies, he displayed wonderful talent for debate, and was finally made prime minister. During his administration the new wall and fortifications around Paris were built at immense cost—a measure which injured the reputa-

tion both of the king and M. Thiers. Guizot became prime minister in 1840, and Thiers, though still a member of the Chambers, spent his time chiefly upon his great work—the Histories of the Revolution of 1789—of the Consulate and the Empire. Their publication, between 1840 and 1848, fixed the rank of the writer among the greatest men of the age. After the revolution of 1848, M. Thiers was elected to the Constituent Assembly, where he rendered good service to the cause of order and property. He is a short, diminutive-looking man, with a bright countenance, and stiff gray hair, like porcupine quills; he wears gold spectacles, and is very plain in his attire. Altogether he is a man who would pass easily in a crowd, without the bystanders suspecting that one of the greatest, if not the greatest man in France was before him.



THE VULTURE.

THE vulture is perhaps entitled, from its size and strength, to the first rank in the history of birds; but from its cowardice and indelicate habits, it has been made to yield the place to the eagle, who, from his boldness, well merits the title of king of birds. The eagle, unless pressed by hunger, will not stoop to carrion, and never devours but what he has earned by his own pursuit. The vulture, on the contrary, is indelicately voracious; and seldom attacks living animals when it can be supplied with dead. The eagle meets singly and opposes his enemy; the vulture, if it expects resistance, calls in the aid of its kind, and triumphs by the force of numbers. Putrefaction and corruption, instead of deterring, only serve to allure it. The vulture seems among birds what the jackal and hyæna are among quadrupeds, who prey upon carcasses and root up the dead.

Vultures are easily distinguishable from birds of the eagle kind, by the nakedness of their heads and necks, which are entirely destitute of feathers. Their eyes are more prominent; those of the eagle being buried in the socket. The inside of the wing is covered with a thick down, which is different in them from all other birds of prey, and which is often converted by the Asiatics into a very comfortable kind of fur, and sold in their markets. When walking on the ground, the wings are pendent, and

the tail drags along the ground; the pinfeathers are found constantly worn away. Their flight is heavy, and they experience considerable difficulty in taking their full soar. They are the only birds of prey which fly and live gregariously.

The vulture is common in many parts of Europe, is extremely abundant in America, and certain kingdoms of Africa and Asia, but is totally unknown in England. There are large flocks of them in the neighborhood of Grand Cairo; there nobody is permitted to destroy. The service they render the inhabitants is the devouring of all the carrion of that great city, which might otherwise corrupt the air. They are commonly seen together with the wild dogs of the country, tearing a carcass to pieces in the utmost harmony. This odd association seems never to produce quarrels. In America, the vulture follows the hunters, who only pursue wild beasts for their skins, and who leave the body flayed behind them; no sooner does a vulture perceive an animal thus abandoned, than it calls out to its fellows, who, with one common accord, pour down upon the carcass, and in an instant pick its bones as bare and clean as if they had been scraped with a knife.

The sloth, the filth and voraciousness of these birds almost exceed credibility. In the Brazils, where they are found in great abundance, they often gorge themselves to

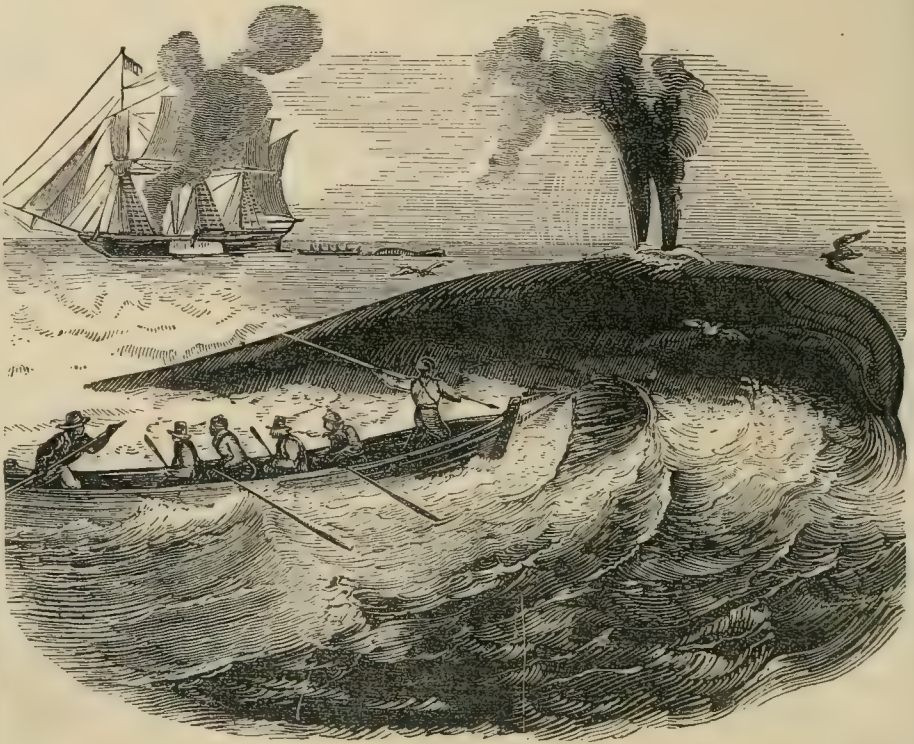
such an extent that they are unable to fly, but keep hopping along when they are pursued. At all times they are a bird of slow flight, but when they are over-fed they are utterly helpless. In case of hard chase, however, they have a method of vomiting up what they have eaten, after which they fly more easily.



CLEOPATRA'S NEEDLE.

In the city of Alexandria, in Egypt, there existed, many years ago, two obelisks, like the one in the engraving above. One of these has fallen to the ground, while the other is as solid as when first erected, although it has been diminished of about sixteen feet of its height, by the accumulation of earth about the base. They are called Cleopatra's Needles. The whole height of the west obelisk, including the pedestal and the three steps, all of which are covered with earth, is about seventy-nine feet; it is eight feet square at the base. It has suffered considerably, like all the remains and

even the natural rocks of Alexandria, from the action of the atmosphere; the west side is in the best state of preservation, and the south the worst of all. These two obelisks formed the entrance to the temple or palace of Cæsar, as it is called, though there is no doubt they were moved from some of the ancient cities of Egypt by the Ptolemies. Egypt is to be seen more in the past than the present; in the vast and wonderful structures, shaped by labor and art into structures that defy the power of time. All the conceptions of this country were "those of men a hundred feet high."



WHALES.

THE GREAT GREENLAND WHALE is about seventy feet long, the head alone making one third of its bulk. The tail is about twenty-four feet broad, and when the fish lies on its side, its blow is tremendous. The skin is smooth and black, and in some places marbled with white and yellow. The outer or scarf skin is no thicker than parchment; but this removed, the real skin appears, of about an inch thick, and covering the blubber which lies beneath; this is from eight to ten inches in thickness, and when the fish is in health, is of a beautiful yellow. The cleft of the mouth is about twenty feet long; the upper jaw is furnished with barbs, that lie, like the pipes of an organ, the largest in the middle, and the smallest on the sides. These compose the whalebone, the largest spars of which are found to be not less than eighteen feet. The tongue is almost immovably fixed to the lower jaw, seeming one great lump of fat; and in fact it fills several hogsheads with blubber. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox; and, set in the gigantic mass which surrounds them, appear hardly larger than a pea. The real bones of the animal, very different from what is called whalebone, are hard, like

those of land animals, are very porous, and filled with marrow.

The whale has a formidable enemy called the sword-fish. At the sight of this little animal, the whale seems agitated in an extraordinary manner, leaping the water as if with affright; whenever it appears, the whale flies in an opposite direction. It has no instrument of defence except the tail, a single blow of which would destroy its adversary; but the sword-fish is as active as the other is strong, easily avoiding the blow; then bounding into the air, it falls upon its enemy, and endeavors, not to pierce with the point of its beak, but to cut and jag with its toothed edges. The sea is soon dyed with blood, while the enormous animal vainly endeavors to reach its antagonist, and strikes with its tail against the surface of the water, making a report at each blow louder than the explosion of a cannon.

Man, however, is a more terrible enemy to the whale than the sword-fish; he alone destroys more in a year than the rest in an age, and actually has thinned their number in the part of the world where they are chiefly caught. The fishery begins in May, and continues all June and July. The ships

are obliged to leave the northern seas and get clear of the ice by August.

The flesh of this animal is a dainty to some nations; and the savages of Greenland, as well as those near the South Pole, are fond of it to distraction. They eat the

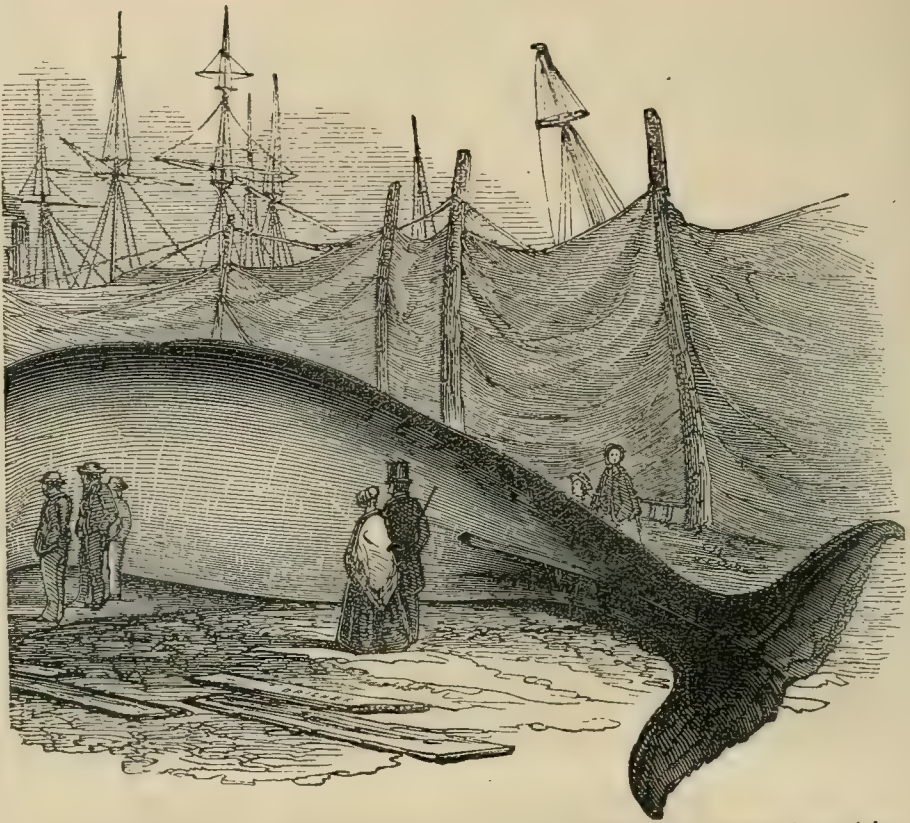
flesh and drink the oil, which to them is an exquisite delicacy. The finding a dead whale is an adventure considered among the fortunate circumstances of their lives. They make their abode beside it, and seldom remove till they have left nothing but the bones.



The sperm whale is a gregarious animal, and the herds formed by it are of two kinds, the one consisting of females, and the other of young whales not fully grown. These herds are called by whalers "schools," and occasionally consist of great numbers; as many as five or six hundred have been seen in one school. With each herd of females are always from one to three large bulls, the lords of the herd, or, as they are called, the "school-masters." The full grown whales almost always go alone in search of food, and when they are seen in company, they are supposed to be making passages, or migrating from one feeding ground to another. The large whale is generally very incautious, and if alone, he is without difficulty attacked, and by expert whalers very easily killed; as frequently, after receiving the first plunge of the harpoon, he appears hardly to feel it, but continues lying like a log upon the water, before he rallies or makes any attempt to escape from his enemies. Large whales are sometimes, however, met with, remarkably cunning and full of courage, when they will commit dreadful havoc with their jaws and tail; the jaw and head appear, however, to be their principal offensive weapons.

The females are much smaller than the males. They are remarkable for their attachment to their young, which they may be frequently seen urging and assisting to escape from danger, with the most unceasing care and fondness. When one female of a herd is attacked or wounded, her faithful companions will remain around her till the last moment, or till they are wounded themselves. The "young bulls," or males, differ strikingly in this respect from the females, inasmuch as they make an immediate and rapid retreat, upon one of their number being struck, who is left to take the best care he can of himself. They are very cunning and cautious, keeping at all times a good look-out for danger. They have some mode of communicating with one another in an incredibly short space of time; the distance between them sometimes amounting to five or even seven miles. The means by which this is effected remains a curious secret.

About three tons of oil are commonly obtained from a large sperm whale; from one to two from a smaller one. The fish is less sought after for its oil, however, than for two very valuable drugs which it yields, spermaceti and ambergris; its oil is also con-



vertible into spermaceti. Candles are made of it, which are substituted for wax, and are sold much cheaper.

The engraving represents a whale recently captured off Folkestone, England, in the

vicinity of which he was driven by a violent storm. He measured eighty feet in length, thirty in girth, and was estimated to weigh twenty tons.



THE ANT-EATER.

THERE are three species of this curious animal known to naturalists, comprehended under the general name of ANT-BEAR. The difference between these species is only one

of size and power,—their habits of life, their singular appetites, and the manner of taking their prey, being alike in all. The largest species is four feet long, from the

tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail; while the shortest is barely seven inches. The snout is formed in so disproportionate a manner, that the length of it makes nearly a fourth of the whole figure. It is almost round and cylindrical, extremely slender, and hardly thicker at the eyes than at the extremity. The legs are very short, and armed with five strong claws. The mouth is very small, the neck short, and the tongue extremely long, slender and flattened on both sides; this it keeps generally doubled up in the mouth, and is the only instrument by which it finds subsistence; for the whole of this tribe are destitute of teeth, and find safety only in the remoteness and security of their retreat.

It may well be supposed that an animal so helpless as the ant-bear, with legs too short to fit it for flight, and unprovided with teeth with which to make resistance when attacked, is neither numerous nor often seen; its retreats are in the most barren and uncultivated parts of South America. It is entirely unknown to the old world. It lives chiefly in the woods, and conceals itself under the fallen leaves. Its manner of procuring its prey is one of the most singular in all natural history. As its name implies, it lives entirely upon ants and in-

sects; and these, in the countries where the ant-eater is found, are produced in the greatest abundance—often building hills five or six feet high. When the animal approaches an ant-hill, it creeps forward slowly on its belly, taking every precaution to keep concealed, till it arrives at a convenient distance; then, lying down at full length, it thrusts forth its round red tongue, which is often two feet long, across the path of these busy insects, and there lets it lie motionless for several minutes together. The ants of that country, some of which are half an inch long, considering it as a piece of flesh accidentally thrown in their way, come forth and swarm upon it in great numbers; but wherever they touch, they stick; for the tongue of the animal is covered with a slimy fluid, which entangles every creature that lights upon it. When therefore the ant-eater has entrapped a quantity sufficient to make it worth its while to swallow, it draws in its tongue and devours them all in a moment; after which it still continues in its position, practising the same arts till its hunger is appeased. Such is the luxurious life of a creature which seems of all others the most helpless and deformed.



THE PALACE OF FONTAINEBLEAU.

THIS celebrated chateau was built by Francis I., and all the art and decorative talent of the age was called into requisition for its adornment. The structure has been since embellished by the taste or extravagance of succeeding kings. It is an irregular pile, resembling a group of distinct edifices rather than one united building. It has six court-yards, each nearly or quite

surrounded with three or four buildings, and combined without any uniform plan. It is adorned with numerous statues and paintings; the work of the Italian artists and others, whom Francis I. engaged for its decoration, have almost entirely disappeared, some from the ravages of time, and others from the rise of a more correct taste, with which their indelicacy was incompatible.

The park and gardens are in a style of magnificence corresponding to that of the chateau; they are adorned with a canal and cascade — nearly three fourths of a mile long, and above one hundred and twenty feet wide — several smaller canals, and a variety of jets d'eau and statues in bronze and marble.

Several kings of France have been born here, and others have died here. Christina, Queen of Sweden, after her abdication, resided here; here lived for eighteen months Pope Pius VII., during the reign of Napoleon; and here Napoleon himself signed

his act of abdication of the throne of France, in 1814, previous to his retirement to Elba. Surrounding the town of Fontainebleau, is an extensive forest, occupying an extent of over forty-one thousand acres, or sixty-four square miles. Its soil is sandy, interspersed with rude blocks of sandstone, which are quarried for the pavement of Paris. The age of some of the trees, and the width of the avenues which pierce the forest in every direction, impart to it a high degree of picturesque beauty.



POPE PIUS IX.

THE present Pope of Rome, before his accession, bore the name of Cardinal G. M. M. Ferretti. He was elevated to the papal chair by the usual vote of the assembled cardinals, in 1846. His installation took place in June of that year. At this time he assumed the name of Pius IX., or, as the Italians call him, Pio Nono. His portraits represent him as a fine-looking gentleman, of a pleasant and intelligent countenance, indicating a good degree of talent and character.

Immediately on his accession to the papacy, Pius IX. showed himself aware of the demands of the age; and commenced, at once, a reform in the temporal affairs of the States of the Church, which had long

disgraced Italy by their backwardness in every improvement. As the popular side seemed likely to prevail, he appeared to place himself at the head of the party of progress, and every liberal-minded man hailed him as the champion of popular rights. But the events of 1848 hurried him on so fast, that he lost the confidence of his people and of the friends of liberty, by withholding the Roman nation from resistance to the Austrian invasion of Italy, in 1848. His people rose against him, deposed him from all temporal power, and established a republic. The Pope, still choosing to take the kingly side in the great contest of power against right, monarchs against people, fled, in the latter part of

1848, to Gaëta. Here he placed himself under the protection of the King of Naples, one of the most black-hearted of the enemies of popular rights! Unaccountably to most of the friends of the French republic, that power sent an army of 20,000 men, under Oudinot, to take possession of Rome, and restore the Pope! They entered Rome in triumph, July 2d, 1849, after a resistance

on the part of the Romans, under Mazzini, which was worthy of the noblest of their ancestors. The excuse the French republic gives for this interference is that, in consequence of the weakness of the Roman republic, Austria and Naples would be paramount in Italy, and thus France would have lost the weight she claims in that country and Europe.



THE COLOSSUS OF RHODES.

This stupendous statue was reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world, and though by some supposed to be one of the fables of antiquity, yet its reality is too well authenticated by historians of veracity and authority to be doubted for a moment. The accounts concerning its construction are contradictory, and mixed up with much fable. The following, gathered from various sources, is not, however, devoid of interest.

Demetrius laid siege to Rhodes and seriously threatened its destruction. The Rhodians besought the assistance of their allies, and implored the protection of Apollo, their tutelary god. Being vigorously succored by their allies, the besiegers were forced to abandon the enterprise. The Rhodians, in recognition of these services, resolved to erect a colossal statue of Apollo, at the entrance of their harbor. Chares, a famous sculptor, was intrusted with the work. He had scarcely half finished it, however, when

he found that the funds had given out; this discovery so chagrined him, that he hanged himself in despair. The statue was finally completed by Laches, and was placed upon its pedestal.

Strabo, Pliny, and other ancient authors who lived at the time that the colossus is said to have been in existence, give its height at seventy cubits, or a hundred English feet. Pliny also relates, that few persons could span its thumb, and that its fingers were as long as ordinary statues. The statue was placed across the entrance of the harbor, with its feet on two rocks; and the Rhodian vessels could pass under its legs. It remained hardly sixty years, however, for an earthquake threw it from its place, breaking it off at the knees; it remained in this condition till the conquest of Rhodes by the Saracens, A. D. 684, when it was beaten to pieces and sold to a Jew merchant, who loaded above nine hundred camels with its spoils.

THE EASTERN WAR.

THE EASTERN WAR, as it is called, is now attracting the attention of the civilized world; we therefore give a brief historical notice of it, as belonging to our Chronological View of remarkable events.

The origin of this war, is to be traced chiefly to the position of Louis Napoleon, as Emperor of the French. This individual had obtained the sceptre of France, by one of the most daring and atrocious acts within the memory of man. Having sworn fidelity to the Constitution, to which he owed his office of President of the Republic, he set secretly to work to destroy it, and to erect upon its ruins an empire of which he was to be the master. He gradually seduced the French army, secured the clergy, and in order to reconcile the mass of the nation, and especially the men of property, to his plans, he caused the public mind to be filled with fears and anxieties about a meditated and threatened socialist explosion, which, it was pretended would bring down the very pillars of law, religion, and society. He was aided in this, by a minister, skilled in all the arts of duplicity and fraud, he having at his command the whole police of France, a power almost omniscient, omnipotent, and omnipresent.

When the whole plot was ready, the great blow was struck, December 2, 1852, and is called the *Coup d'Etat*. By this, the Constitution was crushed, the Assembly of 750 members declared to be abolished, and a considerable part of that body—including the most patriotic and eminent men of the state—seized at night by armed hirelings, and hurried off to the State Prisons. Two days after, the Massacre of the Boulevards took place—and from one to two thousand persons were shot down in the streets of Paris, either without resistance or apology, or upon slight pretext—it being deemed necessary to inspire the country with horror at the socialist and republican resistance, falsely said to have been made or threatened; and at the same time to inculcate a salutary dread of the power of the government. Soon after, all or nearly all France was declared in a state of seige, and suspected persons, in every part of the kingdom, amounting to thirty or forty thousand, were put in prison.

Then followed a reign of terror, during

which the press was silenced, and various acts took place, which, though within the knowledge and memory of many persons in France, are still unrecorded in the general history of the times. Among these events, the banishing to distant colonies of some thousands of persons, without trial, and the exiling of others, guilty of no crime except their genius, their patriotism, and the respect of their countrymen which they had acquired, were significant and suggestive.

All this was done, be it remembered, in the name of the Republic, for beyond all question, at this time, the republican sentiment was the leading political element in the mind of the nation. But gradually, and by a series of intrigues, unparalleled for their ingenuity, their audacity, and their success, the republic was obliterated and the empire substituted, Napoleon being at the head. By the use of the almost omnipotent means placed in the hands of the French government through its absolute and universal centralization, all this was made to appear to flow from the spontaneous will and wish of the people, or at least, to have its sanction. There, was however, a knowledge on the part of Louis Napoleon, that he was not personally loved, that there was no loyalty to him or his family, that there was no tendency, and could be none, in the hearts of the people toward a consecration of his system, and the conversion of it into a settled dynasty. He knew and he felt, that as he had gained his power by perjury, blood, violence, and treachery, such as the darkest pages of history could scarcely equal, that he was surrounded with danger, and difficulties, alike from the shock he had given to the moral sense of mankind, and the individual enmity he had incited.

In this unsafe and unsteady position he naturally cast about on all sides for support. His chief reliance was the army and navy, but these he had run the risk of disgusting, by declaring in a public speech at Bourdeaux, that *the Empire was peace*. It is well known, that as soon as he was in the saddle, as emperor, seeing that the military spirit was rising in the army and navy of the country, and that he must satisfy this, or be displaced, he began to ponder the map of Europe, and indeed to look over the world, to discover some field of conquest, or some theatre of

war that might suit his purpose. In this state of things, it will be remembered that some apprehended he would strike a blow in the West Indies; some imagined that he would attempt to carry the boundaries of France back to the Rhine: while others, and among them, many of the British editors and legislators, apprehended that he would attempt an invasion of England.

Another support, which Louis Napoleon had sedulously sought and used, was that of the Church. Dissolute as he was in private life, and dark as was his political history—he found no difficulty in obtaining the favor and the influence of the priesthood in France. But one thing he still lacked, and that was the consecrating oil of the Pope—which had been bestowed upon his great uncle—in whose footsteps by this time, he professed to walk. The Holy Father was besought to grant this boon, but he feared to do so, lest the sovereigns of Europe, who held Louis Napoleon to be a usurper and a disturber of the monarchies of the world, should take offense.

In this state of things it was suggested that Louis Napoleon might gain favor with the Catholics, and perhaps even win the Pope, if he could obtain some advantages for the Latin over the Greek Church, in Jerusalem and other parts of Palestine, and thus become the "Protector of the Holy places." M. Lavalette, was therefore dispatched to Constantinople, as the ambassador of France, to promote this object; but in his zeal, he took such steps that the Czar of Russia, seeing what was going forward, and feeling that the influence he claimed and had exercised over the Greek subjects of the Sultan in Turkey, was in jeopardy, sent Prince Menchikoff, March 1, 1853, to Constantinople, with instructions to make positive and decisive remonstrances, against these schemes of France.

Here then, were the germs of the war. Russia, through her minister demanded an open acknowledgment of the protectorate which she insisted was conceded to her by usage and secured by treaty—over the members of the Greek religion in Turkey. The ambassadors of France, England, Austria, and Prussia, at Constantinople, remonstrated against this, and after long negotiations, the Sultan rejected the ultimatum which Russia had given. News of this event reached St. Petersburg, 26th of June, 1853, and immediately the Czar issued a manifesto, declaring his intention to occupy the Danubian provinces—Moldavia and

Wallachia—claiming to do so, in virtue of a provision in existing treaties, and for the purpose of holding material guarantees from Turkey, for her fidelity in the performance of her obligations.

A state of things had now arrived, which afforded pretext for what Louis Napoleon needed—a war, and he was not slow in seizing the opportunity. It appears that he succeeded in bringing England into his views, and believing themselves equal to the task of speedily humbling Russia, the two countries—England and France, prepared themselves for the struggle. It is true, that in doing this, many things were to be accomplished. England was to desert Russia, her old Ally; she was to treat that power with duplicity and treachery, and was to form a league with her hereditary enemy, France. But great advantages were presented to her far seeing and greedy vision. If the Russian naval force in the Black Sea, could be annihilated; if Russia could be hemmed in and confined to her European dominions, Great Britain could not only enjoy quiet and secure possession of India, which had been disturbed, if not threatened by the near approach of Russian armies and diplomacy in that quarter, but she could also acquire ascendancy throughout the whole of Central Asia, abounding in rich staples, and offering an almost illimitable field for British commerce. The borders of the Black Sea, also, with its rivers, coursing through extensive regions, yet hitherto sealed, would be opened to British trade, and become markets for British manufacturers.

Such were the inducements offered to England as direct and certain consequences of the crippling of Russia, and as to ultimate events, it was anticipated that so soon as Russia ceased to be a great maritime power, the dominion of the seas, would, immediately pass into the hands of England and France, whose united navies would be irresistible. This feeling, it will be remembered, burst forth, at the time Sevastopol was supposed to have surrendered to the Allies in the autumn of 1854,—soon after the battle of the Alma. Both in England and France, it was then said, in view of the supposed aggressive tendencies of the Americans—"as we shall soon have settled the affairs of the East; we shall then regulate those of the West!"

As to Louis Napoleon, his whole object was to establish himself upon the throne of France: every thing else was subsidiary to this. Attempts were made, though with little suc-

cess, to show that the safety of France demanded that bounds should be set to the aggressions of Russia: that unless she was resisted and punished, she would speedily be in possession of Constantinople, and holding that master Key of the East, she would threaten the whole of Europe, by her colossal power. In the ardor of the argument, to rouse the people of France into enthusiasm for the war, forgetting that the Mediterranean is already under the lock and key of England, at Gibraltar, it was even maintained that this sea was in danger of being converted into a Russian lake, and nothing but immediate resistance could prevent such a state of things so humiliating—so fatal to France.

Peace or War, is easily obtained, when the hearts of kings desire it. The latter, being the choice of the two leading powers in Western Europe, of course soon followed.

On the 2d July, 1853, the Russian army entered the Principalities: on the 5th of October, the Sultan made a declaration of War, giving the Russians fifteen days to evacuate these provinces. A force of 120,000 Turks was raised and placed under Omer Pasha, who took up his head quarters at Shumla. We have not space to detail the events which ensued; it must suffice to say generally, that both powers continued to pour troops into the disputed territories, and that numerous bloody conflicts followed. Among these, were the battle of Oltenitza, which took place November 3d, and 4th, 1853, in which the Russians 30,000 strong, were bravely and successfully resisted, by a smaller number of Turks: the destruction of a considerable number of Turkish vessels of war, 7 frigates, 1 steam frigate, and 5 smaller craft—in the harbor of Sinope, November 30th; and the battle of Citate, on the 6th January, 1854, in which the Turks, after an obstinate fight, gained a brilliant victory. To this we may add the siege of Silistria, which, commencing on the 14th April, continued till about the 1st July, when the Russians in consequence of the threatening movements of the Allied armies, now advancing toward the scene of warfare, commenced their retreat, which ended in the final evacuation of the principalities.

On the part of the Allies, the chief events were as follows: On the 27th March, 1854, Queen Victoria announced to Parliament, that she felt bound to afford active assistance to the Sultan, her Ally, against unprovoked aggression. The Emperor Napoleon, having now become the Ally of England, made a simi-

lar announcement. From this time, the armies and navies of these two powers, have coöperated as well in the Baltic, as in the Black Sea, and its borders, in combatting Russia.

On the 23d March, 1854, Odessa was bombarded by the Allied fleets, and the Russian defenses there destroyed, the former losing a vessel of war, the Tiger, of 18 guns. Admiral Napier, with the English fleet, was joined in the Baltic, by the French squadron in April—the whole force amounting to sixty-seven vessels of war. On the 15th of August, the Bomarsund forts at Hango, were bombarded by the Allies, and having surrendered, were demolished.

The Russians, having evacuated the Principalities, various negotiations for peace took place—which however, proved fruitless. In the meantime, Austria marched a large army into and occupied these territories, with the approbation of the Allies and the secret satisfaction of Russia. The great struggle between the Allies and Russia, was drawn to a focus in the Crimea, whither the former, under Gen. St. Arnaud, commander of the French, and Lord Raglan, commander of the English, were conducted in September, 1854. On the 19th, a terrible battle took place on the river Alma, the Allies being 40,000 strong, against the Russians, with an inferior force. The latter were defeated with great slaughter, and then retired to Sevastopol. The Allies marched upon the latter place, and passing round it, took up a position at Balaklava, on the south.

Since that period there has been an almost constant conflict between the besiegers and besieged, but the place still holds out, against the almost unexampled efforts of the assailants. The Russians have displayed extraordinary genius, as well as immense resources in men and ammunition, in the defense. It appears probable, however, (Aug. 1855,) that Savastopol must ultimately yield, though this is not likely to end the conflict. The war has cost the lives of 500,000 men, and still causes an expenditure of more than a million of dollars a day. It is curious to observe with what horror despots cry out against the blood and ruin inflicted by republican revolutions, which are usually almost bloodless, and only disturb for a few months, the price of stocks; while a quarrel among kings, or an attempt to establish an emperor on a throne, costs hundreds of thousands of lives, and imposes an expenditure of a quarter of a million of dollars a day, upon a single country!

We may add to the startling events connected with this war, that Marshall St. Armand, Lord Raglan, and the Czar Nicholas, all living and acting prominently in the beginning of this conflict, are now dead, and before the rage of the combatants, the

schemes of politicians, and the ambition of kings and emperors can be appeased—still other great names, as well as thousands of humbler ones, will doubtless be inscribed on their tombs.

Since the preceding pages were written, the mighty struggle between Russia and the allied powers has been brought to a close.

It is impossible to present, within the space we can assign to this subject, full details of the conflict. All we can attempt is an outline of leading events. While the fleets of France and England, as well in the Baltic as the Black Sea, inflicted some mischief upon the Russian towns along the coast, Sebastopol was the focus of the strife. To this point the belligerents had drawn immense armies, supplied with every known weapon of attack and defense; here too, they collected their ablest generals, and all put forth their highest efforts. For a whole year the siege was pushed by the allies with astonishing vigor. During this period several bloody battles took place, especially those of Balaklava on the 25th Oct. 1854, and of Inkerman on the 5th of November following. The latter took place on the Sabbath, and converted the holy day into one of the most terrible epochs of this sanguinary war.

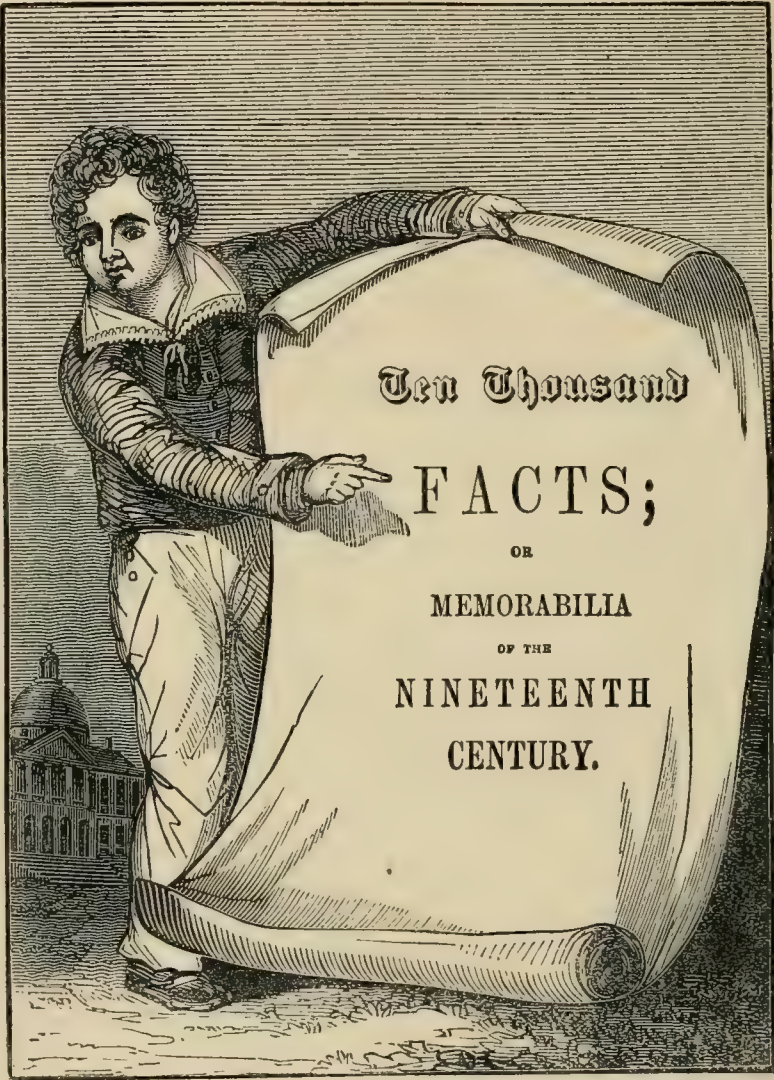
During the winter of 1854-5, the sufferings of the besiegers appear to have been dreadful beyond description. The climate of the Crimea is severe, attended by terrible hurricanes, and frequent storms of snow, rain, and hail. On the 14th of November, one of the tempests occurred, which are peculiar to this region. Early in the morning, the canvass of the tents of both officers and men of the British army were blown away. The night before having been rainy, the whole plateau occupied by the British troops was covered with mire. As the soldiers were left exposed to the gale, they were tumbled into the slime, and covered over with it, as it was taken up and dashed upon them by the raging blast. The scene was at once ludicrous and appalling.

Officers of the first rank were seen struggling with the flapping canvass, or rushing wildly across the plain, in pursuit of their flying clothes, books or papers.

While these scenes were taking place on the land, still more dreadful spectacles were exhibited along the shore, and especially without the harbor. Here transport after transport yielded to the gale; no less than eight large vessels being lost, and two seriously damaged. The beach for miles was covered with merchandise and fragments of the wrecks. Among the vessels lost was the Prince, with two and a half millions of dollars worth of military stores, and 160 persons—seven only of the latter being saved. Such are some of the shadows in the dreadful tragedy of war.

The siege of Sebastopol was begun in Sept. 1854, and terminated in Sept. 1855. On the 9th of that month, everything being in readiness, Marshall Pelissier, upon whom the chief command had devolved, opened his batteries along a line of four miles. The cannonading was continued night and day until the 9th. At the same time, the British, Sardinian and Turkish troops made attacks in different quarters. The resistance of the Russians was heroic, but at last they were compelled to retire. They crossed to the north side of Sebastopol, and the allies took possession of the fortifications, which had so long withstood them.

This event led to negotiations for peace. Plenipotentiaries met at Paris, Feb. 25th, 1856, and agreed upon a treaty, which was ratified and went into operation April 27th. The chief stipulations were that the government of Turkey should ameliorate the condition of its christian subjects, that the Black Sea and Danube should be free to the commerce of the world, and that the principalities should be guaranteed to Turkey.



1800.

March 14. Pius VII., (Chinamonti,) made Pope, by French influence.

April 15. Moreau opens the campaign of the Rhine, and enters Germany with a French army.

May 16—27. Bonaparte crossed the Alps at Mt. St. Bernard, with a French army of 60,000 men. Battle of Montebello.

June 14. Battle of Marengo, gained by Bonaparte, First Consul, over the Austrians, who evacuated most of Upper Italy.

Sept. 3. Treaty of Peace and Commerce concluded between France and the United States.

Dec. 3. Battle of Hohenlinden, Bavaria, gained by the French, under Moreau, over the Austrians:

"When the drum beat, at dead of night,
Commanding fires of death to light
The darkness of her scenery. . . .

"Tis morn, but woe ye lurid sun
Can pierce the woeclouds, rolling dun,
Where furious Frank, and fiery Hun,
Shout 'neath their sulphurous canopy." . . .

Dec. 24. The Infernal Machine first used, in an attempt to assassinate Bonaparte.

The other remarkable events of this year were — ANARCHY QUELLED, and order restored to France, by Napoleon Bonaparte, created the year previous, 9th Nov., First Consul for ten years, — whose government rapidly merges into a military despotism.

Malta taken by the English.

Inoculation with the kine pock first introduced into the United States, by Dr. B. Waterhouse.

Ireland united to England, as an integral part of Great Britain, under one legislature.

1801.

March 4. Thomas Jefferson President, till 1809.

March 24. Alexander I. on the strangling of his father, Paul, becomes Autocrat of all the Russias.

Other famous incidents of this year were —

Peace of Madrid, between Spain and Portugal; and of Paris, between Russia, France and Spain.

Revolution in Switzerland; constitution established.

War of United States with Tripoli.

First Imperial Parliament of Great Britain held — England, Scotland and Ireland, represented in one body.

1802.

March —. Trevethick and Vivian took out a patent, in England, for *LOCOMOTION ON RAILWAYS*; but proposed nuts, grooves, &c., on the wheels, to get a purchase on the rails. See 1810.

The following occurrences also mark this year — Peace of Amiens; Ceylon and Trinidad secured to England.

Servile war in St. Domingo, ending in Haytian independence of France.

Republic of the Seven Islands, or Ionian Republic, acknowledged.

Bonaparte president of the "Italian Republic."

Ohio admitted as one of the United States.

1803.

April. From one to three in the morning, starry METEORS fell from every corner of the heavens, resembling a shower of sky-rockets.

The other remarkable things of this year are —

Louisiana purchased from France, by the U. States, for \$15,000,000.

Germany cedes France 25,000 square miles and 4,000,000 of people.

The last of the "Great Moguls" pensioned off by the British, and his kingdom taken.

The WAR WITH TRIPOLI was brought to a triumphant issue by Preble, who, with one frigate, three brigs, three schooners, six gun-boats, and 1060 men, obliged the Bashaw of Tripoli to sue for peace; — and promise that no piracies should be attempted upon, and no "tribute" ever be exacted of, vessels of the U. States. Eaton's taking the town of Derne, and marching on Tripoli, tended to procure these terms. The bashaw had 115 guns in his forts, and 23,000 men.

1804.

May 14. LEWIS and CLARK's EXPLORING EXPEDITION started from St. Louis, Missouri, to explore the West, to the Ocean. On the 12th Aug., 1805, after wintering at Mandan Fort, the expedition reached the sources of the Missouri. Passing to the Columbia, they descended it to its mouth, where they first saw the Pacific, Nov. 14th, 1805, after 4134 miles of travel, from St. Louis. They returned by a route 3550 miles long, and reached St. Louis, Sept. 23, 1806.

Dec. 2. Napoleon anointed and crowned Emperor of the French.

Other incidents of 1804 are —

Conspiracy against Bonaparte. D'Enghien shot.

Kant, the great German metaphysician, died.

1805.

Aug. 12. Sources of the Missouri discovered. See May 14, 1844.

Dec. 5. Battle of Austerlitz; 75,000 Russians and 25,000 Austrians, defeated by 60,000 Frenchmen, under Napoleon, who said, "Never was a field of battle more dreadful" than this. 120 cannon taken, and made into the column in Vendôme Square, Paris; 30,000 men made prisoners, and 20 generals.

Among the other noticeable things of this year, were —

Coalition of Austria and Russia against France.

The battles of Elchingen and Trafalgar; French fleet defeated by English.

Kingdom of Hayti established. Dessalines emperor, under the title, James I.

The great German dramatist, Schiller, died.

1806.

Jan. 3. Pitt, Lord Chatham died.

Sept. 13. C. J. Fox, minister of G. Britain, died.

The other memorable things of the year are —

Battle of Jena, and Auerstadt; Prussians, &c., defeated by French.

An island 60 miles in circuit, with several low conical hills upon it, *rose from the sea*, among the Aleutian Islands.

Holland made a kingdom, and Louis I., Napoleon's brother, put upon the throne, by Napoleon.

Kingdom of Naples given by Napoleon to his brother Joseph.

Eugene Beauharnois made Viceroy of Italy.

Berlin decree, blockading England, by Napoleon.

British conquer the Cape of Good Hope.

This year was marked in the U. S. by the CONSPIRACY OF AARON BARR, to conquer Spanish territory, detach the "South-West" from the Union, and found an empire under the rule of Burr & Co.

1807.

June 22. British frigate Leopard attacked the U. S. frigate Chesapeake, off the capes of Va., killed four and impressed three seamen.

Dec. 11. METEORIC STONES, or AEROLITES. Hundreds of instances of the falling of stones from the air, sometimes in showers, are recorded. The substance which falls is found to be mostly iron, alloyed with three or four per cent. of nickel. At six and a half o'clock A. M., a shower of these stones fell at Weston, in Connecticut. A globe of fire, half the size of the full moon, and supposed to be a mile in diameter, passed across the north, as if it took three successive throes, or leaps, and at each explosion a rushing of stones was heard through the air, some of which struck the ground with a heavy fall. One of the stones fell on a rock, split it, and was itself shivered to pieces; another made a hole in the ground one foot in diameter and three feet deep, and weighed 35 pounds; and another, — which shivered on a rock, ploughed up a long extent of ground, and scattered the earth and stones to the distance of 50 to 100 feet, with frightful noise, — was estimated to weigh 200 pounds. Some suppose these stones are made by condensation of gases — others that they are portions of some broken-up planet, at last brought within the sphere of the earth's attraction.

The other memorabilia of this year are —

War between Russia and France.

The Wahabees revolutionize Arabia, and take Mecca and Medina.

Revolution in Turkey. Selim III. dethroned; Mustapha IV. sultan.

Kingdom of Westphalia created; Napoleon makes his brother Jerome king of it.

STEAM NAVIGATION. STEAM BOATS. The first was built by Robert Fulton, of but 18 horse power; called the "North River," and made the passage between Albany and New York, on her first trip, in 33 hours. The first one successfully put into use, in G. Britain, was by Mr. Bell, at Glasgow, in 1812. The use of steamboats has brought New Orleans to within a few days of Pittsburg, and Europe to within ten days of America. It bids fair to bring China within sixty days of Europe, and by the help of the Pacific Railroad, to within 20 days of N. Y. The inventor, Fulton, fell a victim to his efforts to secure the merits and a share of the profits of his priceless discovery. When making his experiment on the Hudson, the language of all, who spoke of him or his enterprise, was uniformly that of scorn, sneer, or ridicule. "Never," adds Fulton, "did a single encouraging remark, a bright hope, or a warm wish, cross my solitary path." Since benefactors of their race are generally treated thus, can we wonder that human progress is so slow?

Copenhagen bombarded by the English, and her fleet taken.

Battles of Eylau, and of Friedland.

1808.

July 23. Selim III. becomes Sultan of Turkey.
The other chief historical facts of this year are—
War between Russia and Sweden.
Napoleon puts his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain, and makes his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, King of Naples.
Revolution in Constantinople; Mahmoud II. Sultan.
The Spanish Inquisition abolished by Napoleon.
See a description of it under date of July 15, 1835.

1809.

March 4. James Madison made President of the United States.

Oct. 6. MISSIONS. First meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Commencing with feeble beginnings, but boundless hopes, the "Missionary Enterprise" has steadily increased its operations, till, by the middle of the century, it has a board of missions belonging to every sect in Christendom, and more than 500 missionary stations. One of these boards alone spends annually over 300,000 dollars, has hundreds of stations, and employs hundreds of missionaries, teachers, physicians, and printers. Its missionaries have printed the Bible in 35 languages, spoken by 15,000,000, and gathered myriads of heathen into Christian churches.

Other famous events are—
Austria declares war against France. Napoleon occupies Vienna, and is the arbiter of Europe.
Battles of Eckmühl, and Aspern.
Battle of Wagram; Austrians defeated by French.
Battle of Talavera; English and Spanish against the French.
Revolution in Sweden; the nobles dethrone Gustavus IV., and enthroned Charles XIII.
Temporal power of the Pope abolished.

1810.

Nov. 10. A tremendous storm at Boston, which deluged the country all around.

Other events of the year were—
FIRST LOCOMOTIVE STEAM-ENGINE made by Trevethick, England. Previously it had been denied that turned wheels would give locomotion without racks, nuts, grooves, &c.
Battle of Busaco.
Josephine divorced from Napoleon, who marries Maria Louisa, of Austria.
Revolutions in Mexico, Buenos Ayres, South Peru, and Caracas.

1811.

May 16. Rencontre between U. S. frigate President, Capt. Rodgers, and British sloop Little-Belt.
Dec. 26. Richmond theatre burnt; 61 persons perished—chiefly through a lack of presence of mind.
Some others of the most striking events of this year were—

Battle of Fuente d'Onoro.
Earthquake in South Carolina, and in the valley of the Mississippi; the latter was convulsed to such a degree, between the mouths of the Ohio and St. Francis, as to create lakes and islands; and deep chasms were formed in the ground, from which vast volumes of water, sand and coal, were thrown up to the height of 60 or 70 feet.
Napoleon's son born.
Mehemet Ali becomes Viceroy of Egypt.
Louisiana made a state of the Union.

1812.

June 18. War declared between the U. States and Great Britain.

Aug. 13. U. States frigate Essex, Capt. Porter, took British sloop Alert.

Aug. 19. British ship Guerriere captured by Hull, in the Constitution, alias "Old Ironsides."

Sept. 16. Moscow, capital of Russia, taken by Napoleon, is this day burnt by the Russians.

Oct. 18. U. States sloop Wasp, Jones, captures British brig Frolic; Wasp and Frolic taken by British 74, Poictiers.

Nov. 25. U. States frigate U. States, Decatur, captures British frigate Macedonian.

Dec. 2^o. U. States ship Constitution, Bainbridge, captures British frigate Java.

The other most noted events of 1812 are—
Napoleon invades Russia, with half a million men.
Battle of Smolensk.

Canada invaded by the U. States.
Earthquake at Caracas, S. America; that city was destroyed, and 10,000 persons perished.

Bolivar victorious in Caracas, against the Spanish.

1813.

Feb. 25. U. States ship Hornet captures British sloop of war Peacock.

June 1. U. States frigate Chesapeake, Lawrence, taken by the British ship Shannon.

July 3. U. States vessels Growler and Eagle taken by British-gun-boats.

Aug. 14. U. States sloop Argus taken by British sloop Pelican.

Sept. 4. U. States ship Enterprise takes British ship Boxer.

Sept. 13. Perry's victory on Lake Erie.
Oct. 16, 17, 18, 19. Battle of Leipsic, &c.

During this year also occurred—
The battles of Lutzen, Bautzen, Dresden, Vittoria, Culm, &c.

1814.

March 20. U. S. frigate Essex taken by British vessels Phæbe and Cherub.

April 21. U. S. ship Frolic taken by a British squadron.

April 29. U. S. ship Wasp takes the British ship Epervier.

Sept. 1. U. S. ship Wasp takes the British ship Avon.

Dec. 4. Treaty of Ghent; peace between the U. States and England.

Dec. 15. The Hartford Convention met at Hartford, Conn.

Dec. 17. A violent gale did much damage in Great Britain and Ireland.

The other conspicuous events of this year were—
The quadruple alliance—Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia—drive Napoleon into exile at Elba. Europe is restored to its old condition, mostly, after having been parcelled out by Napoleon to whom he would.

The Creek war in Florida.
The battles of Brienne, Montmirail, Montereau, Lake Erie, Lake Champlain, Plattsburgh, Baltimore.

1815.

Jan. 8. Battle of New Orleans; Gen. Jackson beats the English.

Jan. 15. U. S. frigate President, Decatur, captured by a British squadron of three frigates and a razee.

Feb. 20. U. S. frigate Constitution takes the British ships Cyane and Levant.

March 1. Napoleon returns from Elba; 20th, he enters Paris. His "Hundred Days" Empire.

March 23. U. S. ship Hornet takes the British ship Penguin.

May 20. Decatur sails from New York to fight the Barbary powers, with 3 frigates, 2 sloops, and 4 schooners.

June 15—18. Battle of Waterloo; Europe against France; monarchs against the people. Paris taken; Louis XVIII. again restored; he pays the allies 700,000,000 francs. Napoleon is imprisoned in St. Helena.

June 23. Decatur arrives off Algiers, after capturing

two Algerine corsairs, and soon compels the piratical states to respect the United States flag.

Sept. THE GREAT SEPTEMBER GALE. A tremendous gale, from the south-east, swept the Atlantic coast, and did great damage, particularly in New England. The sea-water was carried, in the form of spray, 25 miles inland.

Oct. 26. Holy Alliance formed in Europe; kings, under the garb of religion, unite against human rights.

Other occurrences worthy of record were—

Buenos Ayres declared its independence of Spain.

Revolution in China, suppressed after much bloodshed.

EARTHQUAKE. An eruption of the volcano, Tomboro, in the island of Sumbawa, attended by whirlwinds, committed great ravages; the sudden rising of the sea submerged the town and considerable tracts. Of the 12,000 islanders only 26 survived.

ALGERINE WAR. Decatur takes Algiers, Tripoli and Tunis, to make peace with the United States, and abstain from piracy.

1816.

April 30. The Bank of the United States established, for 20 years.

May 8. The American Bible Society was formed. Other noted occurrences were—

A tremendous gale of wind did much damage on the English coast.

The "Cold Summer;" every month of this year, frost occurred in the northern United States.

Peace Society founded.

Colonization Society founded, to colonize Africa with native American blacks.

Indiana received into the Union as one of the United States.

1817.

March 4. James Monroe made President of the U. States, till 1825.

Aug. ASIATIC CHOLERA originated at Jessore, north-east of Calcutta, in August, 1817. In Sept. it went to Calcutta, thence to many cities in Hindostan, and over Asia. During 11 years, it carried off 13,000,000 in Hindostan, and its ravages were still greater in Tartary and parts of the Chinese empire. In 1830, it invaded European Russia, and afterwards Poland, Hungary, Germany, Austria, and other countries of Europe. In Oct. 1831, it broke out at Sunderland, England; in Feb. 1832, at London; soon afterwards, in various places of Great Britain; near the last of March, at Paris; in June, at Quebec and Montreal; and at New York, in July. In France, 70,000 had died up to the first of August; in New York, 3127, up to Sept. 8, out of 5842 attacked; in England and Scotland, 17,634 died, out of 47,894 attacked. In Ireland, out of 22,365 cases, there were 7,119 deaths. In Hungary, of 435,331 attacked, 188,000 died. The disease now occurs yearly with more or less virulence. At present, 1849, it rages in various parts of the Union; but in the North, at least, the average of deaths is but 4 or 5, and so on up to 20 or 30, out of 100 persons taken. It seems to yield to medical skill as readily as any violent disease.

Other remarkable things were—

Mississippi became a state of the Union.

Battles of Chacabuco and Maysu.

Charles XIII., King of Sweden, died; Charles John (Bernadotte) made king.

Chili declared her independence of Spain.

1818.

The chief events of this year were—

A most destructive storm raged in Hindostan.

The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle confirmed the Holy Alliance.

The British, by subjecting Holcar and Scindia, now possess all India, except Scinde, the Nepaul and the Sikh country.

The Seminole war, conducted by General Jackson.

Illinois comes into the Union.

1819.

June. STEAM NAVIGATION OF THE ATLANTIC. The steamship Savannah, Capt. Rogers, 350 tons, went from New York to Liverpool, and crossed the ocean twice. Her commander visited both Europe and Asia, receiving presents from the King of Sweden, the Emperor of Russia, and the Sultan of Turkey. See April, 1833.

Other events of the year are—

An earthquake in Cutch, Hindostan, destroying many towns and villages; it deepened the eastern arm of the river Indus from one to eighteen feet, and submerged some tracts, while it elevated others.

Bolivar, President of Colombia.

Alabama enters our Union.

1820.

Sept. A severe gale from the south-east raged along the coast of New England and the Middle States.

Sept. 2. Taou-Kwang succeeded his brother, Kia-King, as Emperor of China.

Other notable occurrences were—

The Constitution of the Cortes of 1812 proclaimed in Spain, and King Ferdinand obliged to accept it. Inquisition again abolished; liberty of the press established; the monkish order dissolved; schools attended to.

Battle of Carabobo.

George III. died, and his son, George IV., ascended the throne.

Maine became a member of the Union.

1821.

March 23. GREEK REVOLUTION. The revolution in the Morea, which resulted in the independence of Greece and Turkey, broke out at a village of Achaia, March 23, 1821. From that time forward the Greeks never relinquished their warlike weapons. They suffered everything, and fought nobly, both on sea and on shore. They struggled against ferocity, murderous brutality, bravery, wealth and power; while they themselves, although the sympathy of the liberal portion of the world was theirs, not only received no assistance, but even experienced checks, from the cabinets of Europe. At length England took the part of the Greeks, private individuals in the United States sent some slight contributions, and a Russian, French, and British squadron, under Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, destroyed the Turkish Egyptian armada of 110 ships, in the Bay of Navarino, Oct. 20, 1827. In 1828, Russia and Turkey went to war, and foreign interference caused the pacification of Greece, in 1829. The Turks were compelled to evacuate the country, a limited monarchy was established; Prince Otho, of Bavaria, still king in 1849, then 18 years old, was put at the head of government. Schools have been established, and, freed at last from the oppression which prostrated its energies, the Greek character appears in a happier light.

May 5. Napoleon died at St. Helena.

Other events of the year were—

Peru achieved her independence of Spain.

Florida was ceded to the U. S. by Spain.

Missouri was admitted into the Union.

1822.

May and June. Conspiracy of the Blacks in Charleston, South Carolina; 35 executed.

Among the remarkable events of this year are—

Battle of Pichincha.

An eruption of Vesuvius.

Scio devastated by the Turks.

This year is also distinguished for the discovery, by Champollion, of the key to the Egyptian hieroglyphics, which have so long set at fault the sagacity of the learned. This picture writing is more than 4000 years old. It is found that the system is quite simple. By ascertaining the *Coptic*, that is, modern Egyptian words for the objects represented, and taking the first

letters of the same, we are enabled to spell, letter by letter, the old Egyptian word intended. This word will generally be found to be a Coptic one; and thus we have the ancient meaning, as the Coptic is well understood. Thus, suppose the priest, or workman, painting or carving upon stone, wishes to spell Boston. He looks round for some object whose name begins with the sound *B*; he finds *berbe*, a censer, and he immediately adopts this word, because, the censer being used in worship, it will be an appropriate emblem of the religious capital of the Puritans. He makes the picture of a censer, and that stands for *B*. For *O*, he takes *okc*, a reed, and as pens were made of this, it is a fitting hieroglyphic in the name of so literary a city. For *S*, he takes the first letter of *Sion*, a star, which prettily represents the intellectual and moral light that Boston sheds around it. *Tot*, a hand, will represent the letter *T*, and the monied *power* of the city. In finding a character for the second *O*, instead of repeating the reed, he will, for variety, use a curved line as an abbreviation of it. For *N*, the vulture, (*noure*, in Coptic;) this symbol of maternal solicitude aptly records the care of Boston for the education of her offspring—her schools being her glory. To spell *Boston* we have, then, arranged in any form we choose, a picture, or hieroglyphic, made up of a censer, a reed, a star, a hand, a curved line and a vulture.

1823.

Among the occurrences of this year we record the following—

Pope Pius VII. died. Cardinal Genga succeeds, as Pope Leo XII.

Puerto Cabello, the last hold of the Spaniards in Colombia, is taken by the patriots.

The Mexican states confederate into one Federal Union.

1824.

August. LAFAYETTE'S VISIT. He landed at New York, on a visit to the United States, by invitation of the president, John Q. Adams; passed through the 24 states, and was received everywhere with the greatest enthusiasm, which never flagged; war-worn veterans, companions of his in the battles of freedom, embraced him with tears of joy; he was proclaimed by the popular voice, "the nation's guest;" celebrated, at Bunker Hill, the 50th anniversary of the first battle of the revolution; and at Yorktown its closing triumph; took leave of the four ex-presidents; received a valedictory address from the president, J. Q. Adams, and sailed from Washington to France in the frigate *Brandywine*, Sept. 25, 1825. See May 20, 1834.

Dec. Congress granted Lafayette \$200,000, and a township of land, as a gratuity in acknowledgment of his services and sacrifices in the Revolution.

Dec. 9. Spaniards defeated at Ayacucho, in Upper Peru.

In this year Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico, banished in 1823, returns, and is executed.

1825.

March 4. John Quincy Adams made 6th President of the United States.

May 29. Charles X. crowned King of France at Rheims.

Dec. 1. Alexander I. died at Taganrog. Constantine declared emperor, but resigns to Nicholas I.

This year occurred also a great Money Crisis. Trade very much disturbed throughout the world.

Upper Peru declares itself independent, and takes the name of Bolivia.

1826.

February. The American Temperance Society formed, on the total abstinence basis. Great temperance reformation commenced.

April 23. Missolonghi, after a brave defence by the Greeks, falls into the hands of the Turks.

July 4. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson died,

just 50 years after they had assisted in the Declaration of American Independence!

During this year the following events also happened—

John VI., King of Portugal, died.

Great conflagration at Constantinople.

The Tartars of Mongolia revolted from the Chinese.

Lord Byron, the poet, died, in Greece.

1827.

Aug. 28. A broad arch of boreal light seen at night to span the heavens; the bow gradually passed the zenith, and vanished towards the south.

Oct. 20. Battle of Navarino. Britain, Russia, and France destroy the Turko-Egyptian fleet of 110 sail.

Among the other occurrences of this year were—

The Quincy Granite Railroad, the oldest railroad in the United States, 3 miles long, completed at Quincy, Mass., in this year.

Persians defeated at all points in the war with the Russians.

Capo d'Istria elected President of Greece.

Canning, prime minister of England, died.

1828.

Jan. Count Capo d'Istria entered on the presidency of Greece; 635,000 inhabitants in that republic.

Feb. Don Miguel, the usurper, proclaimed absolute monarch of Portugal.

March. War breaks out between Russia and Turkey.

April 26. Russia declared war against Turkey.

June 13. Bolivar made dictator of Colombia.

Oct. The Egyptian Turks evacuate Greece.

1829.

Feb. 18. Pope Leo XII. died.

Feb. 27. Battle of Tarqui; 5000 Colombians defeat 8000 Peruvians. Differences referred to arbitration of the United States.

March 4. Andrew Jackson inaugurated President of the United States.

March 21. Great earthquake in Spain. 4000 houses, 20 churches, and many people destroyed.

March 22. Greece. The government, boundaries, &c., settled by Great Britain, France, and Russia.

March 31. Pius VIII. (Castiglioni) elected Pope.

April 9. Destructive inundation of the Vistula, Europe; 10,000 cattle, 5000 houses, and many people lost.

April 22. Lepanti capitulates to the Greeks.

May 2. Dreadful hail-storm in Tuscaloosa, Alabama. It averaged 12 inches in depth, and destroyed a great amount in gardens, orchards, windows, &c., killing some animals.

May 14. Missolonghi and Anatolico capitulate to the Greeks.

May 17. John Jay died. Two severe battles between the Russians and Turks.

May 24. Nicholas, Emperor of Russia, crowned King of Poland, at Warsaw.

May 29. Chesapeake and Ohio Canal commenced. Sir Humphrey Davy died.

June 4. Steam frigate *Fulton* exploded at New York. 26 killed.

June 11. The Russian general, Diebitsch, defeats the Grand Vizier, near Schumla, annihilating his army, killing 6000, and taking 60 cannon.

June 27. Erzerum, Armenia, taken by Russia.

June 30. Silistria surrendered to Russia by the Turks.

July 17—22. Russians pass the Balkan, defeating the Turks twice.

July 23. Greek National Assembly opened at Argos; Capo D'Istria, president.

Aug. 20. After several brilliant successes, the Russians, 2800 strong, under Diebitsch, take Adrianople, with 100,000 garrison; on the 25th, Diebitsch marches towards Constantinople.

Aug. 24. Reuben Kelsey, Vt., died. He had lived 52 days on water alone.

Sept. 12. Spanish invading army at Tampico surrender to the Mexican General Santa Anna.

- Sept. 14. Treaty of peace between Russia and Turkey.
 Sept. 15. Slavery abolished in Mexico.
 Oct. 17. Chesapeake and Delaware Canal opened.
 Nov. 9. Yucatan separates from Mexico, and joins Central America.
 Nov. 26. 30,000 people perish by an extraordinary inundation of the Nile.
 Dec. 4. Abolition, by the British, of the voluntary burning of widows, in India, on the corpse of the husband.

1830.

- Feb. 27. Elias Hicks, founder of the Hicksite Friends, died, aged 82.
 March 26. High tide in New England; water rose 16½ feet.
 June 23. William IV. proclaimed King of England.
 July 5. Algiers surrenders, after six days' siege, to the French, under Count de Bourmont.
 July 23, 29, 30. The second French revolution, called the "Three Glorious Days of July."
 Sept. 15. Liverpool and Manchester Railroad opened.
 Sept. 17. Second centennial anniversary of the settlement of Boston celebrated.
 Oct. 4. Belgium declares its independence of Holland.
 Oct. 8. The Grand Duke of Brunswick obliged to abdicate by a mob who fired his palace.
 Nov. 30. The two Landers descend the Niger to the sea, discovering that Benin, Nun, and New Calabar rivers are mouths of the Niger, and that it communicates with Tchad Lake.
 Dec. 7. Pope Pius VIII. died, and is succeeded by Gregory XVI.
 Dec. 17. Simon Bolivar, the patriotic liberator, died.
 Dec. 31. Madame de Genlis died at Paris, aged 86. Among the other events of this year—
 The first passenger railroad was opened, on the Baltimore and Ohio line, from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, 13 miles.

1831.

- Jan. 24. The Polish diet revolt from Russia, and declare the throne of Poland vacant. See Feb. 25.
 Feb. 12. Great eclipse of the sun, total in the Southern States. At Cape Cod, the formation and rupture of the ring presented a most splendid spectacle, and it is impossible to conceive anything more beautiful or sublime. Venus was visible for more than an hour, and Jupiter for a less time. Fowls were observed returning to their roosts, and cattle to their stalls; the color of the sky became an indigo blue; the thermometer fell from 71° to 29° in the sun, and from 27° to 23½ in the shade.
 Feb. 25. The Poles were defeated near the walls of Warsaw, after a skirmish, on the 14th. 5500 Poles and 4500 Russians killed.
 March 31. The Poles gain a splendid victory over the Russians at Praya, killing, in two days, 12,000.
 April 9. Battle of Siedler; Poles def. Russians.
 April 27. Dwernicki and 3000 Poles surrender.
 May 9. Ten or twelve inches of snow fell in west New York.
 May 18. Temperance reformation. Meeting of American Temperance Society. 3000 auxiliary societies; 300,000 members; 1000 distilleries stopped; 3000 traders ceased to deal in spirits.
 May 26. Bloody battle of Ostrolenka; 55,000 Russians defeat 20,000 Poles.
 June 4. The Belgian Congress chose Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg King of the Belgians, and he took the oath to the Constitution, on the 21st July.
 July 4. Ex-president James Monroe died, aged 73.
 July 14. Russians repulsed by Poles, 5 miles from Warsaw.
 Aug. 2. Great fire at Constantinople; 1800 houses burnt.
 Aug. 11. A tremendous hurricane crosses Barbadoes, greatly damaging property, and destroying many lives.

- Aug. 17. The steam-packet *Rothsay Castle* lost, near Liverpool. More than 100 drowned.
 Aug. Slave insurrection at Southampton, Virginia. 60 killed.
 Sept. 7. The Poles, after a sanguinary contest of 2 days, in which 20,000 Russians are killed, surrender Warsaw to Paskevitch, who is made governor of Poland, the Russian authority being reestablished.
 Sept. 14. Riot at Pernambuco; \$2,000,000 worth of property destroyed.
 Sept. 26. Anti-masons hold a convention in Baltimore, and nominate Wm. Wirt for president.
 Sept. Riot in Providence. Several killed.
 Oct. 1. Free trade convention meets at Philadelphia.
 Oct. 3. Brazil becomes a constitutional monarchy.
 Oct. 30. Nat Turner, the ringleader of the slave insurrection in Southampton county, Virginia, taken; executed, Nov. 11th.
 Oct. 29, 30, 31. Dreadful riots in Bristol, England, because the Lords rejected the Reform Bill. 30 killed; 5 executed. Similar riots at Nottingham, on the 8th, resulted in the burning of Nottingham castle.
 Dec. 15. Hannah Adams, the authoress, died, aged 76, at Brookline, Mass.
 Dec. 26. Stephen Girard, the millionaire banker, died, aged 84.
 Dec. 28. Slave insurrection in Jamaica; \$15,000,000 worth of property destroyed; 4000 blacks killed.
 Dec. 30. Great fire at St. Thomas, West Indies; 1200 houses burnt. Loss, \$2,000,000.

1832.

- Jan. 26. The thermometer falls 55 degrees, in 18 hours, at Boston.
 Feb. 6. The frigate *Potomac* batters down *Qualla Battoo*, to punish piracies and murder of Americans.
 Feb. 10. Great freshet on the Ohio. Water 65 feet above low water mark.
 Feb. 16. Jonathan Russell, a commissioner at the treaty of Ghent, died, aged 60, at Milton.
 March 3. The Supreme Court of the United States decide in the case of the imprisoned missionaries, — sentenced Sept. 16th, 1831, — that the law of Georgia is null and void.
 March 13. Champollion died at Paris, aged 42. See Hieroglyphics, 1822.
 March 22. Goethe, the great German writer, died at Weimar, aged 83.
 March 29. Poland made an integral part of Russia.
 April 1. War between Turkey and Egypt.
 May 15. Cuvier, the celebrated naturalist, died at Paris.
 May 30. Sir James Mackintosh died in London, aged 66.
 June 4. The Reform Bill, equalizing the representation in the British parliament, is passed.
 June 6. Died in London, Jeremy Bentham, the distinguished utilitarian.
 June 8. Cholera breaks out at Quebec, Canada; 27th, at New York. See its history, under Aug. 1817.
 July 10. President Jackson vetoes the bill rechartering the United States Bank.
 July 26. Napoleon's only son, the Duke of Reichstadt, died at the age of 21, of consumption.
 Aug. 27. Black-hawk gives himself up to the U. S. government. In 1833, he and seven more are sent round the country to see its power.
 Sept. 21. Walter Scott, the "Wizard of the North," the most successful of novel-writers, and a celebrated poet, died.
 Oct. 8. Otho proclaimed and installed King of Greece, at the palace of Preysing, in Bavaria.
 Nov. 10. Spurzheim, the founder of Phrenology, died. This is one of those sciences whose birth has taken place in the 19th century. It finds a use for the brain, which it states to be a congeries of organs necessary to the manifestation of intellect, sentiment, and propensity. To each generic sentiment, propensity, and mental faculty it gives its appropriate organ, mapping out the surface of the brain into portions corresponding to the larger ends of lobes, which have a

common centre in the base of the brain. Moral and intellectual philosophy have been much modified, and rendered more practical, by these discoveries.

Nov. 13. Remarkable shower of shooting stars, seen at Mocha, in Arabia. On the 19th, a similar one was seen in England.

Nov. 19. Nullification ordinance, declaring certain United States laws, imposing duties on imports, null and void, passed in a convention of delegates of South Carolina.

Nov. 21. Great battle of Konieh, (Iconium;) 75,000 Turks defeated by 40,000 Egyptian troops.

Dec. First railroad in operation on the continent of Europe, 120 miles, from the Moldau to the Danube.

Dec. 10. President Jackson issues his proclamation against the Nullifiers.

Dec. 24. Antwerp citadel evacuated by the Dutch.

1833.

Jan. 14. The Missionaries discharged from the Georgia penitentiary.

March 11—18. South Carolina Convention pass a nullification ordinance, declaring the United States Enforcing Bill null and void.

April 6. The war between the Sultan and Mehemet Ali concluded.

May 11. Ship Lady of the Lake lost, on an iceberg, in the Atlantic; 215 persons drowned.

May 6. Rev. E. K. Avery's trial for the murder of Sarah Cornell.

June 6. President Jackson commenced his north-eastern tour.

July 3. Napier, with Don Pedro's fleet, defeats the fleet of Don Miguel, the usurper, of Portugal.

July 27. Commodore Wm. Bainbridge, the naval hero, died, aged 60.

Aug. 1. Slavery abolished in the British W. Indies by paying the planters \$103,000,000; more than 300,000 human beings gloriously freed! The apprenticeship commenced, but was soon abandoned for entire freedom.

Aug. 29. Died, of apoplexy, Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, in his 49th year. The queen dowager appointed regent, till Isabella II. attains the age of 18.

Sept. 7. Hannah Moore, the distinguished authoress and philanthropist, died in England, aged 88. A million copies of some of her works have been sold. She earned by her writings \$150,000, and gave away \$50,000.

Sept. 27. The distinguished Christian Brahmin, Rajah Rammohun Roy, a Hindoo, died in England, where he acted as agent for the King of Delhi, Hindostan. He understood ten languages. His life was chiefly spent in efforts to reform the religion of his countrymen from idolatry.

Oct. 1. Removal of the deposits of the U. States from the U. States Bank to various other banks, by R. B. Taney, Secretary of the Treasury, on President Jackson's order, "to preserve the morals of the people," as he alleged, "the freedom of the press, and the purity of the elective franchise."

Oct. 12. A destructive tempest in North Carolina, by which trees, fences, chimneys, and houses are prostrated.

Nov. 13. METEORS, OR FALLING STARS. An extraordinary shower of these took place, about this date, for several years. They lasted from 9 o'clock, P. M., till after sunrise, and probably longer. Their appearance was that of sky-rockets; luminous bolies long stationary; phosphoric lines; and fireballs, some as large as the full moon. In Ohio, one was seen in the shape of a pruning hook, 20 feet long, and 1½ wide, for an hour. The shower is thus described, by one who saw them, at 5 o'clock in the morning, from a position five miles south-west of Boston.

The scene was indeed beautiful, and almost fearful. On all sides, nearly without cessation, the meteors were streaming through the heavens; sometimes one alone, sometimes two, or three, or more together. Some of them were small, and soon disappeared; others were more brilliant, and had a longer and more glorious career, brilliantly illuminating the heavens, so as to cast strong, black shadows from the wintry trees

among which we were standing. "See there! see! see!" said a boy with us, in expressions natural, and at the same time amusingly graphic, "there goes a whole handful! There's one, cracked all to pieces! Look! look! that one's made a long chalk on the sky." So wonderful an exhibition, however, constantly increasing in interest, soon produced emotions amounting to awe. This meteor was seen over nearly all North America and far out to sea. As it recurred in subsequent years, at the same date, a theory was broached that they fell from a body of small density, revolving in six months round the sun, and, at that time, at the height of 2238 miles from the earth.

Dec. 17. Died, Caspar Hauser, at Anspach, Bavaria, of wounds inflicted by an unknown assassin. His history is a mystery. [See page 319.]

1834.

Jan. 10. Died in Maury county, Tennessee, Mrs. Betsey Trantham, aged 154 years! She was born in Germany. At the age of 120 her eyesight became almost extinct; but for 20 years before her death it was as good as at the age of 20. For many years previous to her death she was unable to walk, and required great attention in her friends from year to year, to prevent her body from falling below the temperature necessary to sustain life. She had utterly lost the senses of taste and hearing, and for 20 years could not tell sugar from vinegar. At 65 years of age she bore her only child, who was living at her death, and promised to reach an uncommonly advanced age. We know of no parallel to this case, in history, except it be perhaps that of Old Parr!

Feb. 2. Died, Rev. Lorenzo Dow, a celebrated but eccentric Methodist preacher. He wore a long beard and presented quite a patriarchal appearance. A native of Connecticut, he travelled over England and Ireland, and many parts of the U. States, for 30 years, preaching probably to more different individuals than any other person of his times.

Feb. 18. William Wirt, the celebrated writer, orator and statesman, died.

Feb. 26. Aloys Senefelder, inventor of lithography, died at Munich, aged 63.

April 20. Died, Samuel Slater, aged 67, in Mass. The father of cotton spinning in the U. States.

April 27. Temperance reformation; 7000 societies, 1,250,000 pledges; 1000 ships sailing without spirit rations.

May 1. A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF RAILROADS instituted by Belgium. The first instance; and the first also, in which a nation has erected a monument to her independence, which was not a useless show, or a military trophy.

May 20. General Lafayette died at Paris, aged 77. Gilbert Motier Lafayette, (formerly Marquis) was born at Chavagnac, in Auvergne, France, Sept. 6, 1757. Liberally educated, of vast fortune and high rank, and an officer of the guards of honor, at the age of 17 he married the Duke de Noailles' grand-daughter. In 1777, at the age of 19, he fitted out a vessel, and on the 25th April, arrived at Charleston, S. C. He at once raised and equipped a body of men, and joined the Americans, as a volunteer, without pay. Washington, who loved and trusted him greatly, made him major-general in July; in Sept. he was wounded in the battle of the Brandywine. Going to France for America's sake, in 1779, he returned, and took part in the siege of Yorktown, in 1780. He returned to France, but again visited America in 1784; in 1789, acted a conspicuous part, in France, in her first revolution, when he was appointed commander-in-chief of the national guards of Paris; in 1790, he renounced his title. In 1792, an Austrian patrol captured him, and he was carried secretly to Olmutz, in Moravia, and detained there a prisoner till Aug. 25, 1797. He now retired to his estate, La Grange, and gave himself entirely to farming; nor took much part in public affairs till the revolution of 1830. In 1824, he made a triumphal progress through our Union; a rare spectacle, honorable alike to guest and host. [See Aug. 1824; Dec. 1824; July 23, 29, 30, 1830.] He was appointed, in

1830, to command the national guards again; but soon became opposed to Louis Philippe's policy. [See May 30, 1832.] Few men have acted a conspicuous part so long as he, and both France and America lamented him with distinguished funeral honors. The scenes he saw were among the most remarkable that ever occurred upon the earth; and history in all her records possesses not a name which has passed through the searching ordeal of public opinion, — and too, in the darkest and most tempestuous times, — more pure and unsullied than his.

June 9. William Carey, D. D., (the missionary, and father of modern missions,) died, aged 73, at Serampore, India.

July 6. Died, in Philadelphia, Chief Justice John Marshall, aged 80.

July 8, 9. Eight persons died in N. Y. from drinking cold water, and two by sun strokes; heat, 94 to 100°.

July 10. Abolition riots commence in N. York, to put down discussion in the free states, as to slavery.

July 25. S. T. Coleridge, the poet and writer, died near London, aged 61. Frederick Rapp died at Economy, Pennsylvania, aged 60; he was the leader of the Harmonists, a sect who aim at a social as well as ecclesiastical organization in their church.

Aug. 1. Rev. Dr. Robert Morrison, missionary and Chinese scholar, died, aged 53, at Canton.

Aug. 18. Tremendous eruption of Vesuvius; 1500 houses destroyed.

Nov. 30. Total eclipse of the sun, in South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi.

1835.

Feb. Tremendous eruptions of volcanoes, with destructive earthquakes, in Central America, sinking several towns. 20th. A tremendous earthquake in Chili; the city of Concepcion reduced to a heap of ruins, and most of the province destroyed, and many towns and villages.

March 2. Francis II., Emperor of Austria, died, aged 67.

March 13. Remarkable eruption of Vesuvius.

March 14. Cherokees cede their territory east, and go west of the Mississippi. The United States pay \$5,262,251.

April 24. Great foot-race on Long Island race-course. Henry Stannard, of Killingworth, Ct., won; he ran ten miles in 59' 43".

May 13. Great hailstorm in South Carolina and Georgia.

May 16. Mrs. Hemans, the famous poetess, died at Dublin.

June 2. The cars first passed through the whole length of the Boston and Providence railroad; 27th, ditto, on the Lowell railroad.

June 18. The remarkable William Cobbet died in England, aged 73; a self-taught peasant, he shook the foundations of thrones and the million abuses piled around them, by indefatigable writing.

June 20. French defeated by Abd-el-Kader, the Arab, near Algiers.

June 28. Died, in England, Charles Mathews, the eminent comedian. Not merely mimicking voice and manner, this rare genius had the unique power of copying the minds of the persons he imitated, and his imaginary conversations depicted with a master hand their minds, characters, and dispositions. He spoke all the dialects of Ireland, England, Scotland and Wales, with a fidelity perfectly miraculous; could discriminate the pronunciation of the different ridings of Yorkshire, and spoke French with the Parisian accent, the *patois* of the south, or the guttural tone of the Flemish.

July 15. The Inquisition, which had been restored by Ferdinand, was finally abolished in Spain, where it had existed since 1478. Some 300,000 persons are known to have suffered by this horrible instrument of ecclesiastical and political tyranny; the record of vast numbers more is doubtless hidden with other terrible secrets of the grave.

Napoleon abolished it when he was master of Spain, but Ferdinand VII. restored it. Latterly the vic-

times have decreased to very few per annum. Without being permitted to know who accused him, a man was suddenly seized by the officers of the inquisition; his dearest friends abandoned him at once; no one dared to speak to him. From the midst of the luxuries of life, from all his social prospects and plans in business, from the bosom of an agonized family, he was hurried to a loathsome dungeon. On the slightest pretence, the torture was applied, and many an innocent person, in the pangs of death, was forced to accuse himself. The ghostly tribunal intimidated any who would plead for the accused, and the life of the lawyer himself hung on the slightest word that could be turned against him. The punishments, besides torture, death in prison, and by burning, were excommunication, deprivation of Christian burial, and of right to hold office; deprivation of charge of, and disinheritance of children; destitution of all property, and power over servants and even children; outlawry, also, which gave up the victim to the evil passions of any and every one, without redress or protection; and these punishments extended to any who should attempt to defend an accused person.

Several kinds of torture were used, viz., threatening with torture till the mind was unnerved by uncertainty and fear; hoisting on the rack, a contrivance by which the body was laid over wheels, so that when they were turned with great force, the limbs and every muscle, tendon, ligament, joint and nerve were stretched to their utmost tension, producing inconceivable agony. Squassation was practised, thus: — the victim's hands were tied behind his back, and heavy weights attached to his feet; by a rope running over a pulley above and attached to the wrists, we believe, he or she was then suddenly jerked up, once, twice, or thrice an hour, to a great height, and allowed to fall down by the run, with a sudden check, wrenching and cracking every joint, and horribly crippling for life. All these fiendish cruelties were inflicted to root out Judaism, Protestantism and other heresies, besides pandering to political or private malice. On festival days the cruel inquisitors feasted themselves with a burning alive, or *auto da fe*, "act of faith," that is, the proceedings of the tribunal and its results in respect to the accused. Such were the perversions of a religion sent to make men better, more cheerful, happy and kind!

The stake at which heretics were burnt, was about four yards high, surrounded with a pile of furze, with a seat for the victim upon a board within a yard of the top. The "negative" and relapsed prisoners were first strangled and burned; the "professed" then ascended the ladder, with a Jesuit on each side, urging confession and recantation. If these were refused, the executioner went up and chained the wretched man, woman or child, to the stake. The furze was then lighted about the stake, and as the fire reached no higher than the knees, the victims were literally roasted to death; sometimes in a half hour of agony, sometimes, if the wind was high, in two hours.

July 29. Nine hundred convents suppressed in Spain, the property to pay the state debts.

July 29. INFERNAL MACHINE, Paris. Fieschi, by arranging many musket-barrels in a window, attempted to shoot Louis Philippe and his family. An aid-de-camp was shot at the king's side, and several others; and 30 wounded.

Aug. 4. The Jesuits suppressed, and their property confiscated in Spain.

Aug. 11. The Ursuline Convent, Charlestown, Mass., burned by a mob.

Aug. 25. An earthquake destroys 2000 houses, at Cesarea, Asia Minor.

Oct. 12. An earthquake in Calabria destroys 100 people, in Castiglione.

Oct. 21. Female Anti-slavery Society mobbed in Boston.

Nov. 7. N. York and Erie railroad commenced.

Nov. 11. Destructive tempest on Lake Erie — vessels wrecked, lives lost, Buffalo flooded, and much property destroyed.

Nov. 17, 18. AURORA BOREALIS. This was, in extent and magnificence, one of the grandest forms under which this mysterious phenomenon ever displayed it-

self; resembling however, somewhat that of Aug. 19, 1726. It was widely diffused, exceedingly brilliant and beautiful, the colors various, mingled with purple and vermilion, and at times of a deeper red. When it first appeared, near the close of twilight, the eastern sky was in an apparent glow, like that produced by a distant conflagration. Soon this extended, in a broad belt, over to the western and north-western horizon, exhibiting the appearance of a flame-colored band, verging into deep crimson at the zenith. In a few minutes was seen a semi-transparent, whitish belt, spanning the heavens in a line nearly at right angles to the magnetic meridian, and moving towards the southern horizon, near which it melted away. It made all the sky south of it appear of a dark slate color. Then succeeded columns of light, flame-colored and of a silvery hue, rising from every part of the northern sky. Meanwhile, various parts of the north were tinged with red and crimson, while in the south-east, from 15 to 30 degrees above the horizon, large semi-transparent masses, of a silvery hue, were forming and spreading irregular strata in every direction.

At half past six, after an apparent cessation of action for 15 or 20 minutes, it commenced again with a lurid glow of the sky in the north-east, and with the formation of silvery clouds in the south-east; these were soon followed by corrugations of light, shooting up from all quarters, and uniting in a beautiful crimson corona, near the zenith. At eleven o'clock the spectacle was splendid beyond description. The corona on the north side was of a bluish tinge, on the south of a bright, deep, changeable crimson and red, in portions varying to purple. Streamers were rising from every point of the horizon, and there was a rapid and beautiful rushing of light, in undulatory flashes, called *Merry Dancers*, by the northern nations, like the waving of banners over a red and purple sky.

Nov. 21. Died, James Hogg, the poet, and Ettrick Shepherd, aged 63.

Nov. 22. Great fire in Canton, China; 1400 houses burned.

Nov. 28. First battle in the war of Texan Independence, near Bexar.

Dec. 10. Bexar (San Antonio) surrendered by the Mexicans to the Texans, under Milam.

Dec. 16. Great fire in New York. Weather extremely cold. The fire began at nine, P. M., and raged 16 hours, destroying 17,115,692 dollars' worth of property, 4,000,000 of it in buildings, of which 529 were burnt, including the Merchants' Exchange.

Dec. 28. Troops under Major Dade, and Captains Fraser and Gardner, eight officers and 102 noncommissioned officers and privates, attacked between Tampa Bay and Camp King, by the Seminoles, and all slain, except three privates.

Dec. 31. Battle of Withlacoochee, Florida.

1836.

Feb. 3. Died, Madame Maria Letitia Bonaparte, at Rome, aged 85. She was the mother of the Emperor Napoleon, and of the kings of Holland, Wurtemberg, Spain and Naples.

Feb. 7. Salaverry defeated by Santa Cruz, near Arequipa; the civil war in Peru terminated.

Feb. 23. 4000 Mexicans repulsed from fort Alamo.

Feb. 29. A second battle at Withlacoochee, in Florida.

March 6. Bexar taken by the Mexicans, and Cols. David Crockett and James Bowie killed; 1000 Mexicans, and 180 out of 187 of the garrison, slain.

March 19. Colonel Fanning and 300 Texans conquered by 900 Mexicans, after a bloody battle; Colonel F. and 520 Texans surrendered prisoners of war. Nine days after, they were massacred, in cold blood, except six.

April 11. Victory of San Jacinto, Texas; Houston over Santa Anna, President of Mexico, who is taken prisoner.

May 15. Great Solar Eclipse.

Roanoke village burnt by the Seminoles; 15 killed.

May 23. Died, Edward Livingston, in his 72d year.

He prepared the Penal Code for Louisiana.

May 26. Creek Indians defeated at Tushlahuchie.

June 1. A Severe Frost, doing considerable damage to gardens, vegetables and fruit, in New England.

June 9. Indians defeated at Micanopy, by Heilman.

June 28. James Madison, fourth president, died, in Va., in his 86th year.

July 17. Bp. Wm. White, D. D., died at Philadelphia, in his 84th year. Long the senior bishop of the Protestant Episcopal church in the U. States; he consecrated all but six of its 32 bishops.

July 19. Bp. Cheverus, Cardinal, and Archbishop of Bordeaux, died, aged 69.

July 27. Gen. Jesup announces the termination of the Florida war.

July 30. Mob destroy Birney's press, Cincinnati.

Sept. 7. A Severe Frost in New England; garden vegetables and Indian corn killed.

Sept. 8. Grand bicentennial celebration at Harvard University; 1300 alumni and guests dined together.

Sept. 14. Died, Aaron Burr, aged 81.

Sept. 23. Died, the wonderful vocal actress, Malibran, aged 28, in England.

Oct. 5. An unparalleled snow-storm; 24 or 26 inches fell, melting as it fell; and the next morning measured 13 or 14 inches; 20 inches in Pennsylvania.

Oct. 29. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte attempts, at Strasburg, to revolutionize France.

Nov. 4. Died, Charles X., ex-king of France, at Goritz in Illyria, in his 80th year.

Nov. 7. A great balloon journey of 600 miles, two miles high, was made from London to Weilburg, Nassau, in 18 hours.

Nov. 26. Died, in Scotland, Macadam, the road-maker, aged 80.

Nov. 29. The most violent gale for 50 years, in England; many vessels wrecked and much damage done.

Dec. 15. An influenza, attended by inflammation of the throat and lungs, with violent spasms, sickness and headache, and frequently fatal, raged in Great Britain and Europe.

Dec. 28. Great fall of snow in England; 30 to 40 feet deep—intercourse between London and the southern counties stopped for several days.

Dec. 30. The plague carried off 100,000 persons during summer and autumn, at Constantinople.

ANIMAL MAGNETISM first introduced to the United States, at Boston, by Charles Poyen de St. Sauveur, and A. Hewins. This science was first brought into public notice by Mesmer, a German, at Paris, in 1778; his plan was to cure disease by "the universal fluid," and his patients, arranged in concentric circles, and excited by music, grasped iron rods which came from an oaken drum in the middle of the room, while Mesmer touched them with a metallic rod, and they were soon thrown into convulsions. All this apparatus was soon rejected, and now, simple *passes* before the face are made by the magnetizer, at first, and after the magnetizer has been used to the influence, the magnetizer produces the effect by simple *rolition*. It affects nervous and diseased persons more than others. Good subjects are made insensible to any other ideas than those of the magnetizer, and insensible to pain; are thrown into a state in which they sometimes perceive what is passing at hundreds of miles off; enter into the thought of another; indicate a person's character on taking in hand a sealed letter or anything that has been worn; describe exactly organic diseases and indicate the cure; in fine, can almost pass through the portals of the spiritual world.

1837.

Jan. 16. The "Expunging Resolution" passed in the U. S. Senate.

Jan. 30. Jaffa, (Joppa,) in Palestine, destroyed by an earthquake; 13,000 out of 15,000 inhabitants destroyed.

Feb. 7. Died, Gustavus Adolphus IV., ex-king of Sweden, aged 58. In 1819, he was deposed by the diet for his violent and impolitic conduct. His last years were spent in poverty, ill fed, ill dressed, his annual stipend about \$490.

March 4. Martin Van Buren inaugurated president.

April 3. Snow at St. Louis, Mo., to the depth of 17 inches; a thing unknown before at any season.

April 23. SINKING OF LAND. On the shores of the Baltic, a hill more than 100 feet high and covered with furze, suddenly sunk, with a noise resembling thunder; and adjoining hills were raised 20 to 30 feet.

May 1—12. HARD TIMES—PANIC. Unprecedented embarrassments have been felt among business men for two months back, in all the commercial towns of the Union. In New York, 260 heavy suspensions had occurred, besides countless smaller ones. In New Orleans, in two days, houses stopped, owing in the aggregate, \$27,000,000. Among them were three whose liabilities are stated at \$1,000,000 each, one at two and a half millions, one at three, and one at 15,000,000! In Boston, from Nov. 1, 1836, to May 12, 1837, 163 failures. Real estate in New York depreciated \$10,000,000 in six months; 250 failures of houses doing extensive business; in the same period stocks declined \$20,000,000; the merchandise here depreciated 30 per cent.; within a few weeks 20,000 laborers have been discharged. May 10, all the New York banks suspend specie payments, and on the 11th those of Boston and elsewhere.

June 11. Broad street riot in Boston.

June 20. William IV., King of England, died.

June 21. Victoria, proclaimed Queen of Great Britain.

Aug. 4. Discovery of the "North-west Passage," along the north shore of America, completed.

Sept. 29. Sioux treaty to go west of the Mississippi.

Oct. 1. Winnebago treaty.

Oct. 20. Osceola and Coe Haje, captured.

Oct. 30. Cholera in Catania, Sicily, carried off 40,000 out of 60,000 people of the city.

Nov. 7. Alton riots. Lovejoy's press destroyed a third time; himself and one of the mob killed.

Nov. 23. Battle at St. Dennis, L. C.; regulars defeated by "Patriots."

Nov. 25. St. Charles, Canada, taken from the Patriots.

Nov. 30. Great mortality among the Indians of the Upper Missouri.

Dec. 4. Mackenzie takes Montgomery House, near Toronto. The governor takes 1000 volunteers and routs him on the 6th. On the 5th martial law is declared in Montreal.

Dec. 14. Insurrectionists in Canada defeated at St. Eustache. St. Benoit, the "focus of the insurrection," burnt by the loyalists.

Dec. 25. Battle between Pease Creek and Big Cypress Swamp, in Florida.

Dec. 29. The Imperial Palace burnt, at St. Petersburg.

Dec. 30. About two o'clock, A. M., 100 Canada loyalists attacked the Caroline at Schlosser, and of 31 Americans on board, 22 lost their lives. The boat was fired, towed into the current with part of the men on board, and precipitated down the falls.

First rail-road in Russia, from St. Petersburg, 17 miles, towards Moscow.

1838.

Jan. 10. Royal Exchange, London, burnt.

Jan. 23—26. Earthquakes in eastern Europe; 300 houses destroyed in Bucharest, and 60 persons killed.

Jan. 24. Jesup defeats the Seminoles at Loche Hatchee.

Jan. 31. Died at Fort Moultrie, Osceola, or Powell, the celebrated Seminole chief. From a vagabond child he became the master spirit of a long and desperate war. With the feeblest means he produced the most terrible effects.

Feb. 1. Peace between France and Hayti; the latter to pay 60,000,000 francs.

March 1. Patriots surrender to United States Gen. Wool, in Vt., and the frontier is quieted.

March 16. Died, Nathaniel Bowditch, the famous mathematician, aged 65.

March 26. Great law case in England, Atwood vs.

Small, decided. The hearing occupied 80 days, 50 at the bar of the House of Lords. Expenses more than three quarters of a million of dollars; the printed papers amounted to 30,000 folio pages; and the notes took 10,000 more.

April 4. The first STEAM PACKET SHIP, the Sirius, left Cork, Ireland, for New York, and arrived April 23; on the same day the Great Western arrived, which left Bristol, England, on the 8th.

April 17. The Fifteen Gallon Law passed in Massachusetts.

April 20. A meteoric shower at Knoxville, Tennessee.

April 23. The English steam-packets, Great Western and Sirius, arrived at New York, forming a new era in navigation.

April 27. Great fire in Charleston; \$4,000,000 lost, 1153 buildings burnt.

May 17. Died, at Paris, PRINCE TALLEYRAND, in his 84th year; the most accomplished of diplomatists, and in public life for half a century, as bishop, clerical deputy, president of the States General, member of the directory, secret envoy, exile, minister of foreign affairs, Prince of Benevento, and grand chamberlain of the Empire, president of the provisional government, French commissioner at the Congress at Vienna, minister for foreign affairs, president of council, and ambassador to England. He was of rare firmness and imperturbable sang froid; looked on mankind as puppets for his moves, was infinite in resources, elegant in language, and of unbounded influence.

May 17. Pennsylvania Hall, Philadelphia, burnt by a mob.

May 29. The Specie Circular rescinded.

June 19. Great flood of rain, in Central Pennsylvania.

June 23. Died, aged 64, in Mt. Lebanon, Syria, where she had lived 20 or 30 years, Lady Hester Stanhope, called by the Arabs Queen of Palmyra, and possessing unbounded influence over them.

June 28. Coronation of Queen Victoria, England. July 1. Died, Mahmoud II., Sultan of Turkey, in his 54th year.

July 8. Treaty of Peace between Russia and Turkey.

Aug. 1. Apprenticeship abolished in the British West Indies, and entire emancipation of the slaves, 800,000 and more, decreed.

Aug. 18, 19. Exploring Expedition, under Wilkes, sailed from Hampton Roads; it returned to N. York 10th June, 1842.

Oct. 31. Died, Noah Worcester, D. D., aged 79, founder of the Mass. Peace Society.

Nov. 13. Insurgents defeated at Prescott, in Canada.

Nov. 27. The castle of San Juan de Ulloa, at Vera Cruz, taken by the French.

1839.

Jan. 11. Dreadful earthquake at Martinique; at Port Royal, 1700 houses destroyed, and 500 people killed.

Jan. 20. Battle of Yungay; Chilian army victorious.

Jan. 21. Great conflagration at Constantinople. Vizier's Palace, called Baba Humayroon, (that is, lofty gate, sublime porte,) including the different ministerial and administrative offices, destroyed. Loss estimated at about \$4,000,000.

Jan. 26. Tremendous gale in the U. States; much of New York, Albany, Philadelphia, &c., overflowed.

Jan. 26. Died, in his 75th year, "the Patroon," Major General Stephen Van Rensselaer.

Feb. 12—27. Troubles on the north-eastern boundary.

March 2. Died at Norwich, Vt., in his 35th year, Rev. Zerah Colburn; from the age of 6 to 13, he had an astonishing faculty for arithmetic.

March 17. CONFISCATION OF OPIUM IN CHINA. The Chinese imperial com., Lin, sent from Pekin, issues at Canton a proclamation notifying foreigners that

the Chinese laws against the opium trade are to be enforced.

27th. All the opium belonging to British subjects, amounting to 20,283 chests, valued at \$10,000,000, was surrendered to Capt. Elliot, superintendent of the trade of British subjects in China.

April 1. Carrera usurps the government of Central America.

April 25. Died, General Samuel Smith, a benefactor of Baltimore, in his 87th year.

June 9. War is declared by the Sultan of Turkey against Mehemet Ali, Pacha of Egypt.

June 15. Grand CHARTIST PETITION, signed by 1,280,000 persons, praying for a written constitution, universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, abolition of the property qualification for membership of the House of Commons, and that members be paid for their services,—presented in the Parliament of Great Britain by Mr. Attwood.

June 24. Grand battle of Nezib, near Bir, in Syria. The Turks, 70,000 strong, defeated by Egyptians, or Arabs, 80,000. 25th. The commander of the Turkish fleet treacherously surrenders it to Mehemet Ali.

July 11. The British House of Lords proceed in state, in court dresses, to the Queen's Palace, and ask her to rescind the grant of 150,000 dollars made by the House of Commons, for National Education; on June 24th, Victoria "duly appreciates their zeal for religion and the established church, but regrets they should have thought it necessary to take such a step."

July 15. Chartist riots at Birmingham.

July 31. A very extraordinary hurricane at New Haven, Ct.

Aug. 5. Cabul, the Afghan capital, taken by the English; Ghizni taken July 22.

9th. Conflagration; 3700 houses burnt in Constantinople; \$24,000,000 loss.

Aug. 23. Grand Tournament at Eglintoun Castle, Scotland; 80,000 people assembled. The Earl of Eglintoun got up this splendid pageant, to exhibit the scenes of the days of chivalry. Everything was in keeping; arms, armor, dress, exercises, manners;—all were according to the fashions of the middle ages. The age of Romance was reproduced in the age of Trade.

Sept. 3. A brilliant and remarkable Aurora Borealis. 14th. The long civil war in Spain closed by the retreat of Don Carlos into France.

Nov. 5. Two English vessels of war wantonly fire on 29 Chinese junks, and kill 900 men.

1840.

Jan. 10. Penny postage commences in England.

Jan. 13. The steamboat Lexington burnt; 140 lives lost, in Long Island Sound.

Jan. 19. Antarctic continent discovered by the U. S. Exploring Expedition, and coasted for 1700 miles.

Feb. 10. Victoria, Queen of England, married to Prince Albert, of Saxe Coburg Gotha.

Feb. 11. City Ex., N. Orleans, cost \$800,000, burnt.

Feb. 12. Died, the famous surgeon, Sir Astley P. Cooper, aged 72. His professional income was from \$90,000 to \$105,000 per annum. For a single operation he once received about \$5,200.

April 30. Died at Caen, in France, George Brummell, aged 62, better known as the famous "Beau Brummell," the companion of the dissipations and follies of George IV., when he was prince.

May 3. Died at Paris, aged 70, James Morrison, of London, vender of "Morrison's Pills." In 10 years he paid the English government \$300,000 for medicine stamps alone, such was the success of his quackery!

May 4. Grand Young Men's Whig Convention at Baltimore, to nominate General Wm. H. Harrison for president. 15 to 20,000 present.

May 7. A tremendous tornado passes over the city of Natchez. Loss, \$1,500,000; 317 killed.

June 7. Frederick William III., King of Prussia, died in his 70th year, father of the Prussian common school system.

June 29. Died, near Rome, Lucien Bonaparte, next brother to Napoleon, in his 66th year.

June 30. Independent Treasury, or Sub-Treasury Bill passed.

July 18. Cunard steam-packets; first arrival in Boston.

Aug. 5. The British take the city and island of Chusan from the Chinese.

Aug. 6. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, at Boulogne, attempts to revolutionize France, but is imprisoned.

Aug. 14. Passage from Liverpool to Halifax made in 10 days by the Britannia steam-packet.

Sept. 3. Grand Harrison Convention of 30,000 Whigs at Wheeling, Va.

Sept. 10. Bunker Hill Convention of 20,000 Whigs to elect Harrison.

Oct. 7. William I. resigns the throne of Holland to his son, William II., to marry the Catholic Countess D'Oultremont. His private fortune was \$31,248,000.

Oct. 10. Battle near Beyroot. The Turks and their allies defeat the Egyptian army.

Oct. 18. Napoleon's embalmed body was removed from St. Helena, and on Dec. 15th, deposited at the magnificent Hospital of the Invalides, Paris. The countenance was still perfect. 500,000 people were present; 60,000 national guards.

Nov. 3. Acre (Ptolemais) stormed by the allied fleet of Turks, English, and Austrians. 500 barrels of powder exploded, burying 2000 soldiers in the ruins \$5,000,000 worth of materials found in the fort.

Nov. 30. A tremendous earthquake in Zante. Damage, \$2,500,000.

Dec. 1. Battle in Scinde; 4000 Belooches defeated by Lieut. Col. Marshall.

Dec. 4. Great snow storm in the middle states.

MORMONISM. This sect commenced in 1830, through the barefaced imposture of one Joe Smith, in Palmyra, in West New York, where this vulgar and ignorant person pretended that he had found in the ground certain gold plates in an unknown language, which was revealed to him, and the plates proved to be a lost part of the Bible, the book of the prophet Mormon, an antediluvian or some later seer! On these assertions he persuaded some silly people to believe certain doctrines therein taught, and the sect called itself Latter Day Saints. Their first mission from Palmyra arrived at Mentor, Ohio, in Oct. 1830. They built a temple at Kirtland, Ohio. Holding the doctrine literally, that "the wealth of the sinner is laid up for the just," and drawing the fanatical conclusion, that *therefore* it was for *them*, they were troublesome to their neighbors, who accused them of stealing. They consequently became subjects of dislike, which amounted, in time, to persecution. This persecution fell on many of them as much for their wickedness' sake as for righteousness' sake. Nevertheless it had, of course, the effect to increase their number. They were no doubt shamefully, wickedly treated; and being successively driven from Michigan, Missouri, and Illinois, where Joe was killed, they at last started for Oregon and California, but stopped half way in the north-east corner of California. At Nauvoo, Illinois, they had built a city, in the centre of which was a vast and costly temple, and some nine or ten thousand Mormons were gathered here, from Europe and America.

They are said to be enclosing a city of twelve miles square with a wall, not far from the borders of Salt Lake, in the valley of Bear River. Here some seven or eight thousand are said to be collected, who have opened the virgin soil, made themselves homes, and have already a surplus to sell to the emigrants, who have started in such improvident numbers to California, by the land route. This may save many from famine. It is said there are 50,000 belonging to the sect, who are all converging to the grand centre on Bear river. The tenets of the Mormons are uncertain, as Joe Smith was in the habit of pretending, like Mahomet, a constant succession of revelations, to suit his purposes. Their bible, published in 1830, contains 590 pages, mostly nonsense, interlarded with scripture phrases. He has been heard to say, The Lord says so and so, and "if it does not come right we'll fix it,"—that is, another revelation shall mend the matter! It would seem incredible that mere impudence should acquire such power, did we not know

Now not only the ignorant and superstitious, but wise and learned men have been befooled by fanaticism, in all ages and countries.

1841.

Great thaw, and freshet, and fall of rain.

Feb. 5. Pennsylvania Bank of the United States, after paying out six millions of specie in 20 days, suspended specie payments, as did the other banks of Philadelphia; and also those of Baltimore, &c. Those of New York and New England continued to pay specie.

Feb. 22. An avalanche of soil destroys 113 lives at Gragnano, in Italy. Reggio, in Calabria, is nearly destroyed by an earthquake.

Feb. 25. The Canton and the Bogue forts captured by the British, with great slaughter.

March 4. William Henry Harrison inaugurated president before a concourse of 30 to 60,000 persons.

March 11. The English steam-packet President, 109 souls on board, sails from New York for Liverpool, and is never heard of more! Loss \$304,000.

March 15. Great rise of the streams of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama.

March 27. Tremendous hail-storm at St. Louis, for 15 minutes.

April 4. President Harrison dies, and his remains are honored with an imposing funeral. A fast day is observed on the 14th in consequence.

May 16. Yucatan declares its independence of Mexico.

May 17. At Quebec, some 30 persons are killed by the falling of 250 feet of the cliff.

June 15. Praia, in the island of Terceira, completely destroyed by an earthquake.

June 18. The state of the Isthmus of Panama constituted.

July 13. Affairs of Turkey and Egypt settled by the allied powers of Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia and Russia.

Aug. 9. Awful burning of the steamboat Erie on the Lake. 172 persons perished, mostly Swiss and German emigrants.

Aug. 16. President Tyler vetoes the fiscal Bank.

Aug. 20. A horrible explosion of 640 pounds of powder, at a fire in Syracuse, N. Y., kills 25 persons.

Aug. 20. Steam-power applied with success to carriages on ordinary roads, in London; speed obtained, 18 miles an hour.

Sept. 3. Great anti-abolition mob, which ruled Cincinnati for 24 hours, killed several persons, and wounded 20 or 30 others.

Sept. 9. President Tyler vetoes the fiscal corporation bill; this is the 14th time the veto power has been exercised, viz., twice by Washington, 4 times by Madison, once by Monroe, 5 times by Jackson, twice by Tyler.

Oct. 4. Great storm of rain, snow, and wind.

Oct. 12. McLeod's trial for burning the Caroline; verdict, not guilty.

1842.

Feb. 1. General United States Bankrupt Law went into operation.

May 16. Dorr Insurrection in Rhode Island; 16th, Dorr entered Providence with 1300 followers, 300 of them armed. On the 18th, he attempted to take the arsenal. June 29th, he entrenched himself at Chepachet. June 25th, 1844, he was sentenced to hard labor in the state prison during life, for treason; but released on June 27th, 1845.

July 20. The city of Chin Keang taken by the English.

Aug. 29. Treaty of Peace concluded between China and Britain. The Chinese to pay \$21,000,000; open five chief ports, and cede the island of Hong Kong to the British.

Sept. 13, 16. Afghans defeated by the British, and Cabul taken.

Oct. 2. Rev. Dr. Channing died, aged 62. — Croton Water Celebration in New York.

Nov. 30. Violent storm of wind and rain on the coast.

Dec. 1. Conspiracy on board the United States brig Somers; Philip Spencer, midshipman and two accomplices, hung at the yard arm.

1843.

Jan. 9. Dreadful fire at Port au Prince, Hayti; 600 buildings burnt. Loss, \$4,000,000.

Jan. 13. Great hurricane on the coasts of England and France; 180 vessels wrecked, 430 persons killed.

Feb. 25. A pork-packing house at Cincinnati took fire, exploded, and killed 8 persons.

March 21. Southey, the poet, died, aged 68.

June 17. Bunker Hill Monument completed; grand celebration; 50,000 present.

July 9. Washington Allston, the artist, died in Cambridge in his 64th year.

Sept. 15. Revolution in Greece. King Otho compelled to give his people a constitution.

Sept. 15. Destructive hurricane in Florida.

Oct. 24. Fire at Canton; 1400 houses burnt.

Nov. 10. Col. John Trumbull, painter, a companion of Washington, died at New Haven, Conn., aged 87.

1844.

Feb. 12. Daniel O'Connell, the Irish patriot, tried, and found guilty of conspiracy.

Feb. 27. Nicholas Biddle, the financier, died, aged 58.

May 1. Great Whig Convention; 50,000 people, at Baltimore, nominate Clay and Frelinghuysen for President and Vice-President.

May 6-8. Native American and Irish riots in Philadelphia; 30 houses burned; 14 persons killed by a mob. The foreigners, who attempted to prevent a citizens' meeting, were awed down.

June 27. Joe Smith, the Mormon impostor, and his brother Hiram, murdered by a mob, at Carthage, Ill.

July 7. Riots in Philadelphia; 40 or 50 killed; quelled by a force of 5000 troops.

July 17. Bushyhead, Chief Justice of the Cherokees, died.

July 25. Mehemet Ali abdicated the sovereignty of Egypt, in favor of his son Ibrahim, and went on a pilgrimage to Mecca; but changed his mind, and returning, took the government again in four days!

Aug. 15. The French destroy several towns and defeat an army in Morocco; peace is made September 10.

Sept. 19. Great Whig Mass Convention at Boston, of 25,000 persons.

Oct. 18. Great gale at Buffalo; fifty persons drowned.

Dec. 3. J. Q. Adams carries his motion, in Congress, to rescind the rule against receiving Abolition petitions.

Dec. 5. Hon. Samuel Hoar, public envoy of the State of Massachusetts, driven from South Carolina.

Other events of 1844 were—

First Magnetic, or Electric, Telegraph. It was erected between Baltimore and Washington. There were, on September 1st, 1848, 6679 miles of telegraph wires in the United States.

Santa Anna deposed by Paredes; and Herrera made President of Mexico.

1845.

Jan. 4. Hon. Benjamin Russell, printer, died at Boston, aged 83.

Jan. 16. Treaty with China ratified by Congress.

March 1. Texas annexed to the U. States.

April 7. Earthquake in Mexico.

April 10. Tremendous conflagration at Pittsburg, Pa.; 1000 buildings burned; loss \$6,000,000.

May 8. Ex-President Andrew Jackson died, at Nashville, aged 78.

May 25. Theatre and thirty other buildings burnt in Canton, China, and 1300 lives lost.

May 28. Dreadful fire in Quebec; 1500 buildings burnt; loss, several millions of dollars. June 23, an-

other fire occurred in Quebec, destroying 1300 buildings, and some lives.

July 12. Rev. Dr. Henry Ware died at Cambridge, aged 81.

July 19. Destructive conflagration in New York; loss, \$6,000,000.

Sept. 10. Judge Joseph Story died at Cambridge, aged 65.

Oct. The Potato Disease excites general alarm.

Dec. A revolution installs Paredes as President of Mexico.

Dec. 11. Lord John Russell forms a new ministry in England.

Dec. 21. Battle in North-west India; British defeat 30,000 Sikhs.

1846.

Feb. 10. In N. W. India 20,000 British defeat 36,000 Sikhs; losing 2333, and killing 10,000.

Feb. 15. Severe snow storm and gale along the Atlantic coast.

Feb. 23. Rebellion in Poland; insurgents, 40,000 strong, take Galicia and march on Cracow; quelled in a few days.

Feb. 23. English Corn Law Reform.

March 23. Taylor, with 3500 men, takes post on the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras.

April 5. Hon. John Pickering, a distinguished scholar, died, aged 69.

April 21. Hostilities commence with the Mexicans, who surround and kill Thornton's troop of observation.

May 8, 9. Taylor, with 2000 Americans, defeats 5000 Mexicans who attack him between Matamoras and Point Isabel. (Battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.)

May 12. Congress declares that war exists by the act of Mexico, and authorizes the raising of 50,000 volunteers and \$10,000,000.

June 1. Pope Gregory XVI. died at Rome, after a reign of 15 years.

June 12. Great fire at St. Johns, N. B.; 6000 rendered homeless.

June 14. Theatre Royal burnt at Quebec; 46 persons burnt to death.

June 18. Oregon treaty with Britain ratified, making the 49th parallel the boundary.

June 21. Pope Pius IX. enthroned at Rome; formerly Cardinal Mastai Ferretti.

July 6. Capt. Sloat, of the United States squadron, took Monterey, California, and proclaimed that the whole country was annexed to the U. States.

July 24. The Ex-King of Holland, Louis Bonaparte, died at Florence, aged 6.

July 23. New tariff bill passed.

Aug. 3. President Polk vetoes the river and harbor bill; and, on the 8th, the French spoliation bill.

Aug. 18. Brig. Gen. Kearney takes possession of Santa Fe, New Mexico, absolves the people from allegiance to Mexico, and administers the oath of allegiance to the U. States, to the public officers.

Aug. 19. Com. Stockton blockades the western coast of Mexico.

Sept. 19, 20, 21. Disastrous gale in Newfoundland; very destructive to life and property.

Sept. 21, 22, 23. Battle of Monterey, fought by Taylor; 4700 Americans against 10,000 Mexicans posted behind strong defences.

Sept. 26. California expedition, under Stevenson, sailed.

Sept. 23. The new planet, predicted by Le Verrier, was discovered by Dr. Galle of Berlin.

Oct. 2. Dr. Benjamin Waterhouse died at Cambridge, Mass., aged 92.

Oct. 25, 26. Tabasco bombarded by Capt. Perry.

Nov. 14. Tampico taken by Capt. Conner.

Nov. 16. Independence of Cracow abrogated by Prussia, Russia, and Austria.

Dec. 6. Gen. Kearney, after a march of 2200 miles through the wilderness, with 100 dragoons, defeats 160 Californians at San Pasqual.

Dec. 25. Battle near El Paso, New Mexico. Doniphan, with 450 Missouri volunteers, defeated 1100 Mexicans.

1847.

Jan. 8, 9. Kearney fights the battles of San Gabriel and La Mesa, against the Californians.

Jan. 24. Battle near Canada, in Chihuahua; 400 volunteers, under Price, defeat 1500 Mexicans and Pueblo Indians.

Feb. 8. Frederic William, King of Prussia, gives his subjects their long promised Constitution.

Feb. 22, 23. Battle of Buena Vista; Santa Anna, with 22,000 Mexicans, defeated by Taylor with 4759 Americans, mostly volunteers. 6000 Mexicans and 267 Americans killed.

Feb. 23. Battle of Sacramento Pass. Doniphan with 924 men, defeats Heridia with 4000 Mexicans.

March 1. Gen. Kearney proclaims the Californians citizens of the United States.

March 23. The U. States sloop of war Jamestown, under Capt. Forbes, sails from Boston to Cork, with provisions for the relief of famine in Ireland.

March 29. Vera Cruz and San Juan de Ulloa surrendered to Scott and Perry.

April 4. Bucharest, capital of Wallachia, burnt up; loss, more than \$17,000,000.

April 15. Prince C. L. Napoleon Achille Murat, son of the ex-King of Naples, died, a country gentleman, in Florida, aged 46.

April 18. Tuspan taken by Capt. Perry; 14 killed and wounded. Battle of Cerro Gordo. Scott with 8500 Americans defeats Santa Anna with 12,000 Mexicans.

April 26. The Bogue Forts, China, taken by the British; 876 cannon spiked.

May 1. The corner stone of the Smithsonian Institute laid at Washington.

May 15. Daniel O'Connell, the famous Irish patriot, died at Genoa, aged 72.

May 31. Rev. Dr. Chalmers, Scotland, died, aged 69.

June 7. Abbot Lawrence gave \$50,000 to Harvard University, to found a school of the Practical Sciences.

July 18. U. States frigate Macedonian sailed with provisions for relief of the famine in Ireland.

Aug. 9. George Rapp, founder of the Rappites, a politico-religious sect of socialists at Economy, Pa., died, aged 92.

Aug. 20. Battles of Contreras and Churubusco, near Mexico; 7000 Americans defeat 30,000 Mexicans; lose 1000, and kill 6000 men.

Sept. 8. El Molino del Rey, Mexico, defended by 14,000 men, taken by the Americans. 12, 14. Chapultepec taken. On the 14th the Americans enter the city of Mexico in triumph, (130 killed,) after three days' fighting, and at seven, A. M., the Stars and Stripes wave over the "Halls of the Montezumas."

Oct. 1. Violent tornado at Portsmouth, N. H.; a roof weighing 70,000 pounds carried 200 feet.

Oct. 5. Liberia independent; J. J. Roberts chosen President.

Oct. 9. Slavery abolished by Sweden at St. Barts, or St. Bartholomew Island, West Indies.

Oct. 24. Reform Banquets commence in France, at Chartres, to carry out reforms intended by the revolution of 1830, which had not been carried into execution.

Nov. 21. Steamer Phoenix burnt on Lake Michigan; 240 lives lost.

Nov. 25. Thirteen states made this a Thanksgiving day. Reformers in France proclaim their principles, requiring that all who pay taxes shall vote.

Nov. 29. Missionary killed, and thirteen others, in Oregon, by the Indians; first blood shed there.

Dec. 17. Maria Louisa, widow of Napoleon, Archduchess of Parma, died.

Dec. 22. Abd-el-Kader, the famous Arab chief, in Algeria, surrenders to the French general, Lamoriciere.

Dec. 23. Louis Philippe opens the session of the French Legislature in a speech; alluding to Reform

Banquets, which gives much offence, and helps on the revolution.

This year is noted for the discoveries of Layard in the ruins of Nineveh, published in 1849. Also for the discovery of the effects of *ETHER*, in suspending sensation during surgical operations, thus saving a vast amount of suffering.

1848.

Jan. 1. Girard Orphan College, Philadelphia, at last opened, 16 years after the death of its founder.

Jan. 1. Revolt of the Italians against the Austrians commenced by the Milanese refusing to use tobacco, so as to diminish the Austrian revenue.

Jan. 11. Mercury froze in the thermometer, at 39° below zero, in Franconia, New Hampshire.

Jan. 12. The Sicilian revolution broke out in the chief cities; after great carnage the people of Palermo were successful. On the 13th, a provisional government was appointed.

Jan. 19. Isaac D'Israeli, the author of *Curiosities of Literature*, died, aged 82.

Jan. 20. Christian VIII., King of Denmark, died, in his 62d year. The new king offered his people a constitution.

Jan. 23. The King of the Two Sicilies signs a constitution; and in Feb. offers the constitution of 1812 to the Sicilians.

Feb. —. The Grand Duke of Tuscany gives his people a freer constitution.

Feb. 8. Debate in the French Chamber of Deputies about the "Reform Banquets;" sixty members threaten to resign.

Feb. 8. The King of Sardinia proclaims the basis of a constitution.

Feb. 9—12. Lola Montez, a Spanish singer, and mistress of the King of Bavaria, is the cause of serious riots at Munich.

Feb. 13. 100 French deputies, and more, resolve to attend the Reform Banquets; also five peers.

Feb. 18. Major Gen. Scott gives up the command of the army in Mexico, to Gen. Butler.

Feb. 21—26. **THIRD FRENCH REVOLUTION. Monday.** The French Chamber of Deputies disturbed by the entrance of 200 deputies, asking if the Reform Banquets are to be suppressed. On the minister's answering in the affirmative, the sitting closes in tumult. The garrison of Paris is increased. The Banquet of the morrow is abandoned.

Feb. 22. **Tuesday.** Bodies of the disaffected parade the streets of Paris all day; in the afternoon an attempt to keep the mob in check results in bloodshed.

Feb. 23. J. Q. Adams died, aged 81.

Feb. 23. Numerous bodies of insurgents erect barricades in the streets of Paris; much blood shed.

Feb. 24. **Thursday.** A conciliatory proclamation is made in vain in Paris, at 11 A. M. At 1 P. M., King Louis Philippe, abdicates the throne in favor of his grandson, the Count of Paris, and escapes. The cry is, "No more Kings! Long live the Republic!" and a *Provisional Government* is named. Lamartine president of the provisional government.

Feb. 25. The city and forts of Paris are in the hands of the mass of the people.

Feb. 26. Lamartine proclaims "THE FRENCH REPUBLIC, LIBERTY, EQUALITY, FRATERNITY."

Feb. 29. The Grand Duke of Baden grants his people freedom of the press, a burgher guard, trial by jury, and right of public meeting.

Feb. 29. Neuchâtel declares herself an independent republic.

March. John Jacob Astor, the millionaire, died in New York, aged 84.

March 1. The Elector of Hesse Cassel, after a severe riot, grants his people's demands of freedom.

March 2. The King of Wirtemberg grants liberty of the press.

The King of Prussia promises freedom of the press. The Grand Duke of Saxe Weimar promises reforms.

The King, Leopold, of Belgium, gives his ministers leave to propose reforms.

March 4. The Duke of Nassau grants his people their rights.

March 4—6. The King of Bavaria grants the demands of his people, after an insurrection.

March 10. The Duke of Saxe Meiningen grants a liberal government to his people.

March 11. Died, Hon. Henry Wheaton, diplomatist and author, a truly great man.

March 13. Tumult at Vienna. Metternich resigns his ministry and flees. This stronghold of legitimacy and king-craft surrenders. The Emperor of Austria grants freedom of the press, and a national guard, and promises a constitution.

March 13—20. An outbreak at Berlin. The King of Prussia, going to Potsdam, decrees a Federal Union of Germany; grants liberty of the press, and political amnesty. During these days barricades are erected and the citizens and students fight the military. Some 274 of the soldiers are killed and wounded.

March 14. The King of Holland requests his Legislature to make what reforms they please, and he will sanction them.

The Duchies of Sleswig and Holstein, demand to be separated from Denmark. On the 26th, they revolt and come into the German Federal Union. The King of Prussia supports them. War ensues between Denmark and the Duchies, and trade is ruined.

The King of Denmark grants freedom of the press, and of public meetings.

March 17. The King of Hanover grants freedom of the press, and a public convention, and political amnesty.

March 18. The Emperor of Austria proclaims freedom of the press, and calls a convention, but the people are not satisfied, and take the city.

March 18. All Lombardy, South Tyrol, Venice and Trieste, rebel. 19th. Parma revolts, with barricades and loss of life.

March 20. Modena rises and imprisons its Duke.

March 22. The King of Bavaria abdicates his throne in favor of his son, Maximilian II.

March 23. Sardinia declares war against Austria.

March 30. Great riots in Posen.

March 31. The Congress of German Deputies meets at Frankfort.

April 10. Great Chartist demonstration in London. The Chartists of England demand a written constitution, universal education, universal suffrage, vote by ballot, no property qualification, annual parliaments, payment of members, and equal electoral districts.

April 13. The Sicilian Parliament declares the independence of Sicily. Messina bombarded.

April 23, 24. Election of the National Assembly of France; which meets on the 4th May.

April 25. Cracow rebels, but unsuccessfully.

April 29. Bloody riots in Posen.

May 1. Riot at Rome.

May 7. Bloody Riot at Madrid.

May 12. Lord Ashburton died, aged 74.

May 14. The Deputies at Naples disagree with the king; who conquers the city after bloody fighting. 1440 bodies are buried.

May 15. A mob enters the French Assembly, and some of the members side with it. It is put down by the National Guard and its leaders arrested.

May 18. The German Parliament meets at Frankfort. The Emperor flies from Vienna.

May 22. The Constitutional Assembly of Prussia meets.

May 26. James Mitchell convicted of treason in Dublin, Ireland.

May 29. Prague proposes a gov. for Bohemia.

May 30. Treaty of Peace between Mexico and the U. States, (signed Feb. 2d, 1848,) ratified in Mexico.

June 1. Paredes revolts in Mexico, with Jurauta.

June 9. Lombardy, by more than half a million votes, unites with Piedmont.

June 12. The last detachment of American troops leaves Mexico.

June 18. The English in India rout the forces of Moultan; also, on July 1.

June 22—26. Terrible revolt of workmen in Paris — who take half the city. Cavaignac made Dictator.

It is put down, but not till 3 or 4 thousand are killed and wounded.

June 18—28. Revolt in Wallachia and provisional government formed.

June 29. Archduke John, of Austria, elected by the German Parliament, "Lord Lieutenant of Germany."

July 4. Chateaubriand died, aged 80. Corner stone of Washington monument laid at Washington.

July 6. Herrera President of Mexico.

July 25. Habeas Corpus Act suspended in Ireland to put down the disturbances there.

July 29. The Niagara suspension bridge crossed — it is 220 feet high, 8 wide, and 762 long.

Aug. 1. Vera Cruz evacuated by the Americans, and the Mexican flag hoisted.

Aug. 4. Milan capitulated to the Austrians. The Sardinian army retired to Tessino.

Aug. 4. Capital Punishment abolished in the Prussian Assembly; also, on the same day, in the German Parliament at Frankfurt.

Aug. 5. The Irish rebellion quelled after a few trifling encounters.

Aug. 9, 10. Free Soil Convention at Buffalo.

Aug. 14. Territorial government established in Oregon.

Aug. 17. Destructive fire at Albany; loss, three million dollars.

Aug. 18. Venice declared herself an independent republic.

Aug. 24. Ship Ocean Monarch burnt; 170 lives lost.

Sept. 1. Railroads. 5703 miles of railroad in the Union.

Sept. 1. Ibrahim Pasha nominated Viceroy of Egypt by the Sultan of Turkey, in consequence of the inability of Mehemet Ali, now in his dotage.

Nov. —. The King of Persia, Mohammed Shah, died, and was succeeded by Naziri-din, his eldest son.

Nov. 10. IBRAHIM PASHA, Viceroy of Egypt, died, aged 59; after a reign of two months and ten days. Abbas Pasha, his nephew, (being the eldest male of Mehemet Ali's family,) succeeded to the viceroyalty. Ibrahim entered the army at the age of 17; in 1816, he was sent against the Wahabees, and conquered them, and on Dec. 11th, 1819, was received with great triumph at Cairo, and had the title of Pasha of the Holy Cities given him by the Sultan. In 1824, he sailed to Greece with 163 ships, 16,000 infantry, 700 horse, and four regiments of artillery, to assist in quelling the Greek revolution. He committed great excesses and cruelties. In 1827, the fleet was destroyed at Navarino, and very few of the troops returned to their country. In 1831, he led an army of 24,000 infantry, four regiments of cavalry, and 40 pieces of artillery, to the conquest of Syria. He destroyed all the troops sent by the Sultan against him, and at Konieh, 22d Dec., 1832, defeated 60,000 Turks, with his army of 30,000. He now advanced on Constantinople, where 20,000 Russians were opposed to him, and he fell back on Syria. He introduced admirable regulations into his Syrian government. In 1839, he defeated another Turkish army, and a second time had Constantinople within his grasp. But the European powers interfered and drove him out of Syria, confining the Egyptian power to Egypt. Ibrahim was always very respectful to his father, but his manners were more rough, and he was of a penurious disposition. He spoke Arabic, Turkish, and Persian, and read history several hours daily. The European newspapers were regularly translated to him. He left three sons, Ahmed, Ismael, and Mustapha.

Nov. 16. Count Rossi assassinated at Rome.

Nov. 24, 25. The Pope of Rome, Pius IX., fled from Rome to Gaeta, in Naples, and a provisional government proclaimed his abdication.

The Roman Republic was soon organized by the Roman people, and Mazzini was made president.

Other striking occurrences of this most eventful year are—

The general introduction of Ether and Chloroform, as anæsthetic agents to prevent pain in surgical operations.

The improvement in Photography, by which colors

are reproduced on the plate, as well as shades and lines.

The abdication of the Emperor of Austria, in favor of his son.

Thirty-two thousand houses, at a loss of 12,000,000 rubles, destroyed by fire in 13 northern provinces of Russia, during 1848; instead of the usual average of 2000. Consequently, friction match factories were forbidden without license.

Chinese hemp naturalized at Marseilles, France. Stalk 5 to 6 inches round and 25 feet high.

1849.

March. Inundation at New Orleans; water sixteen inches higher than ever known before.

March 3. Home Department established in the U. States administrative government.

March 3. Minesota established as a territory. Legislature to meet first at St. Paul.

March 5. Zachary Taylor inaugurated as President of the United States.

SUCCESSION OF PRESIDENTS. Geo. Washington, 1789 to 1797. John Adams, 1797 to 1801. Thomas Jefferson, 1801 to 1809. James Madison, 1809 to 1817. James Monroe, 1817 to 1825. J. Q. Adams, 1825 to 1829. Andrew Jackson, 1829 to 1837. Martin Van Buren, 1837 to 1841. William Harrison, 1841 to April, 1841. John Tyler, April, 1841 to 1845. James K. Polk, 1845 to 1849. Zachary Taylor, 1849.

March 5. A Legislative Assembly of the district of St. Francisco met for the first time at St. Francisco, California.

March 6. Souleque, President of Hayti, invades the Dominicans, and is routed.

March 8. Insurrection at Pernambuco; 500 killed.

March 10. Largest merchant ship launched at N. York; the tonnage 2000 tons.

March 12. Great Land Suit, involving \$15,000,000, decided at New Orleans.

March 17. Flood at Chicago; \$100,000 damage.

March 23. Tremendous Tornado in Kentucky. Immense damage, and many lives lost.

March —. The Austrians beaten, with great loss, in several engagements, by the Hungarians. General Bem compels a large force to fly into Wallachia. Georgy was conducting the war in Upper Hungary — Dembinski on the Theiss.

March 24. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, defeated at Novara, by Radetsky, the Austrian general, said to be 81 years old. 50,000 troops on a side. Three other battles ensued, and the Piedmontese were driven to the mountains. Charles Albert then abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel, and a truce was made. The new king is 29 years old, and respected for his uprightness.

March 27. North Carolina Gold Region reported very productive.

March 28. Insurrection at Genoa; put down after a sanguinary conflict, by Gen. Marmora.

March 30. Terrible disasters reported of Col. Fremont's party crossing the mountains to California. 130 mules buried in the snow, and 11 men starved to death.

March 31. Brescia, Lombardy, taken with great slaughter, by the Austrians, after it had revolted and massacred its Austrian garrison.

April 1. Barbés, Albert, Blanqui, and Raspail, transported from France for political offences.

April 3. The King of Prussia declines the imperial crown of Germany.

April 4. The Danes surrender two ships, the Admiral and 1000 men, at Eckenforde.

April 14. The Hungarian Parliament declare the independence of Hungary, and Transylvania, excluding the house of Hapsburg from the throne. Ludwig Kossuth elected President.

April 17. Punjaub war ended; 100,000 square miles, and 3,500,000 population, annexed to the British Empire.

April 21. MORMONISM. The Mormons say they have, in 1849, five churches in London, a newspaper

in Wales, where many have joined the sect, and meeting-houses in Liverpool and in Manchester. Seven hundred emigrants of the sect lately embarked in G. Britain for the Salt Valley, in the Rocky Mountains. Seven hundred have formed a settlement on an island in the northern part of Lake Michigan.

April 22. French Expedition of 14,000, sent by the National Assembly to reinstate the Pope.

April 24. Riot in Montreal. Parliament house destroyed. Governor burnt in effigy.

May. Disturbances take place throughout Germany, daily.

May 5. Garibaldi, the Roman general, defeats the Neapolitan army.

May 6. First National Council of the Roman Catholic Church convened at Baltimore; 26 Bishops present.

Russia sends 120,000 Russians into Hungary, with 350 cannon.

May 8. Neapolitans take Palermo.

May 10. Dreadful Macready riot at Astor Place Theatre, New York; 25 to 30 killed.

May 12. New King of Holland inaugurated at Amsterdam.

May 16. Steamer Empire sunk on the Hudson; 30 lives lost.

New elections to the National Assembly in France, return 210 to 240 socialists.

May 17. Great fire at St. Louis; 20 persons killed, loss \$1,670,000.

May 30. First Gold Dollar coined; it is of California gold.

June. 6664 and a half miles of railroad in operation in the United States.

June 13. Insurrection of 25,000 in Paris, headed by Ledru Rollin and Etienne Arago of the Mountain party. Suppressed. Ten Socialist and Red Republican Journals suppressed.

June 15. Insurrection of Red Republicans at Lyons, France; quelled with great slaughter.

June 15. Father Matthew, the Apostle of Temperance, arrived at New York.

June 27. The ship Charles Bartlett run down in the Atlantic, in a fog, by the Europa steamer, and 134 lives lost.

July. Hereafter, in Ohio, a man's Homestead, up to the value of \$600, is exempt from execution.

July 2. The French army under Oudinot enter Rome, after a brave resistance. The Pope soon after returned to Rome, and the insurrection was thoroughly put down.

July. Pine-apple naturalized in Florida.

July 23. The garrison at Rastadt, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, surrenders unconditionally to the forces of Prussia.

July 27. The Grand Duke of Tuscany, re-entering his capital, resumes his authority.

July 28. The death of Charles Albert, late king of Sardinia, occurs at Lisbon.

Aug. 1. The Legislative Chamber opened by the King of Sardinia. His speech was "moderate," and cordially received.

Aug. 1. Ratifications of a treaty of peace and commerce between Great Britain and Liberia, are exchanged.

Aug. 2. Garibaldi, the Roman Chief, accompanied by several hundred followers, escapes in some fishing vessels at a port on the Adriatic.

Aug. 2. The Pacha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, dies at Alexandria, aged 80 years.

Aug. 7. General Oudinot surrenders the civil administration of the Papal states into the hands of the Pope's three commissioners, who enter on the work of restoring the former state of things.

Aug. 11. Gorgey, to whom the Hungarian Diet had entrusted its powers, surrenders his army to the Russian general, which led to the subjugation of Hungary.

Aug. 22. Marshal Radetsky effects the capitulation of Venice.

Aug. 29. After a siege of four months the Russians carry by assault the fortress of Achulga, the residence of Schamyl the renowned Circassian chief.

Sept. 12. The Pope issues a manifesto from Naples to his subjects, in which he promises certain reforms in government, and a limited pardon to political offenders.

Sept. 13. The Council of State at Rome, in agreement with the Pope's manifesto on the 12th inst., announce pardon to political offenders with certain exceptions. The exceptions, it is said, amount to more than 13,000 persons, who are thus excluded from the amnesty.

Sept. 27. The fortress of Comorn in Italy surrenders to the Austrians.

Oct. 7. The late Prime Minister of Hungary, Count Louis Batthyanni, is shot at Pesth, at the sole agency of Haynau.

Oct. 15. The United States' Secretary of the Treasury makes known in a Treasury Circular, that after January 1st, 1850, British vessels from British ports or other foreign ports, will be allowed to enter our ports with cargoes, the produce of any part of the world, on the same terms, as to duties, imposts, and charges, as vessels of the United States and their cargoes.

Oct. 16. The Island of Tigre, in the Gulf of Fonseca and state of Honduras, is taken possession of in the name of the British Queen, by Mr. Chatfield, under cover of an armed force.

Nov. 12. The political trials at Versailles are brought to a close: 11 are acquitted, 20 are convicted and sentenced, 17 to transportation for life, and 3 to imprisonment for five years.

Nov. 15. Ledru Rollin and thirty accused individuals absent from trial, are sentenced to transportation for life.

Dec. 2. Adelaide, widow of King William IV., queen dowager of England, dies.

Dec. 20. A wide crevasse in the Levee of the Mississippi occurs at Bonnet Carré, a distance of about forty miles above New Orleans.

Among the events of the latter part of this year we may notice the prevalence of the cholera at the South and West:

Gold from California to the amount of millions continues to flow into the great cities of the United States:

Tubular Bridge across Menai Strait, England, is completed: It consists of two tubes of iron riveted together, each a quarter of a mile in length: The rail-road cars cross on this stupendous structure about a hundred feet above the level of the ocean at high tides:

Revolution in Hungary terminated by the triumph of the Austrians, aided by a powerful army of Russians:

1850.

Jan: 11: An Arctic expedition in search of Sir John Franklin sails from Woolwich, England: It consisted of the Enterprise, Capt: Collenson, and the Investigator, Commander McClure:

Jan: 18: Another Crevasse in the bank of the Mississippi takes place at Suave's plantation:

Jan: 26: Lord Jeffrey, famous for his long connection with the Edinburgh Review, dies at Edinburgh:

Feb. 4. A steam-boiler in A. V. Taylor's machine establishment in Hague street, New York, bursts, throwing down and setting the building on fire. Nearly seventy persons are killed or die of their wounds, and thirty are injured.

Feb. A great eruption of Mount Vesuvius occurs.

March 8. Twenty thousand pounds sterling offered by the British government for the discovery and effectual relief of the ships Erebus and Terror, or ten thousand pounds for the discovery and effectual relief of any of the crew of the vessels, or for ascertaining their fate.

March 23. The jury bring in a verdict of guilty against Prof. John Webster for the murder of Dr. George Parkman. The trial lasted six days.

April 13. Pope Pius IX. returns to Rome from his exile.

April 23. William Wadsworth, the poet, died at his residence at Rydal Mount, aged 80. He was poet-laureate of Great Britain at the time of his decease.

April 27. Collins's line of steamers, designed as packets, goes into operation, by the sailing of the Atlantic steamer from New York to Liverpool.

May 23. The Advance and Rescue, the two vessels equipped by the liberality of Mr. Henry Grinnell of New York, and designed for the discovery of Sir John Franklin, sail from that port.

May 24. Sir John Ross and Commander Phillips leave Lochryan on their expedition, in search of Sir John.

May 27. The great Mormon Temple at Nauvoo is destroyed by a hurricane.

May. A man by the name of Sefelege shot the king of Prussia in the arm with a pistol.

June 17. The steamer Griffith, on her passage from Erie to Cleveland, is burned to the water's edge. Less than forty out of 330 passengers and crew were saved.

June 29. In consequence of a fall from his horse Sir Robert Peel is severely injured, and died July 3d, aged 62.

July 8. Adolphus Frederic, Duke of Cambridge, seventh son of George III., died, at the age of 76 years. He had served in the army.

July 9. Three hundred and fifty buildings in Philadelphia are burned, involving a loss of \$1,500,000, and accompanied with a great destruction of life.

July 9. Zachary Taylor, President of the United States, dies, and is succeeded by Millard Fillmore, the Vice-President.

Aug. 26. Louis Philippe, ex-king of the French, died at Claremont, England. His age was 77.

Sep. 4. Marshal Haynau, the Austrian commander in the war against Hungary, on a visit to an extensive brewery in London, is attacked by a mob composed of the workmen in the establishment, and the draymen and coal-heavers outside. He is severely treated, and barely escapes with his life. Through the assistance of the police he is carried off to a place of safety amidst the shouts and execrations of the mob.

Sep. 7. The bill admitting California into the Union passes the House of Representatives by 150 yeas to 56 nays.

Sep. 12. The fugitive Slave Bill, as it came from the Senate, is passed in the House of Representatives by a vote of 109 yeas to 75 nays.

Oct. Jenny Lind, the Swedish songstress, creates an unwonted enthusiasm in the United States by her musical performances.

Oct. 29. The Portuguese frigate Donna Maria II., of 32 guns, is accidentally blown up in the

harbor of Macao, and completely destroyed. One hundred and eighty-eight out of two hundred and forty-four men on board perish in the explosion.

Dec. 13. President Fillmore issues his proclamation declaring that the Act of Congress of Sep. 9, 1850, relative to the boundaries of Texas and the payment to her by the United States of \$10,000,000, is in full force and operation, the condition therein having been performed by Texas.

Dec. 29. The English forces, in an engagement with the Caffres in South Africa, suffer a defeat, and are obliged to retire to their fort.

At the close of this year the following statistics and facts are presented:

Army, Navy, &c.—The army of the United States includes 8867 men, and the navy comprises forty large and forty smaller vessels of war. The annual revenue of the government is about \$50,000,000, chiefly derived from customs on imported goods. Two-fifths of the expenses of the government are for the army and navy, and is now about \$5,000,000. The tonnage of the United States (viz: 3,535,000 tons,) is larger than that of any nation, except Great Britain, which has 4,360,000 tons.

Rail-roads. There are in the United States 16,000 miles of rail-road.

Telegraphs. There are about 26,000 miles of telegraph in the United States: 15,000 conducted on Morse's plan, 11,000 on those of House and Bain.

Canals. The aggregate length of canals is 4,500 miles.

Exports. The total amount of the exports of the United States in 1850 was \$178,138,318: the imports \$151,898,720.

Chief Productions. The annual products of the chief branches of industry in the United States are estimated as follows:

Manufactures, \$1,020,300,000.

Mines, 120,000,000.

Agriculture, 1,200,000,000.

Population of the United States by the new census, 23,257,723.

Gold discovered in abundance at New Holland, now called Australia.

1851.

Jan. 23. The Caffres to the number of 3,000 attack the colonists and their allies, near Fort Hare, Cape of Good Hope, but are driven back with the loss of 100 killed.

Feb. 17. The government of Austria and the Ottoman Porte came to the following settlement respecting the Hungarian refugees: a full and entire amnesty is granted on condition that they will not attempt to enter Hungary. An exception is made of eight refugees, among whom are Kosuth and Bathany.

April 2. An earthquake of great violence is experienced in Valparaiso, South America: several houses are thrown down, and many of the public buildings injured. The destruction of property is great, though few lives are lost.

May 1. The Queen of England inaugurates the exhibition of the works of industry of all nations.

May 3. A large portion of the business part of the city of San Francisco is laid in ashes. Many persons are burned to death, and from one to five millions of property are destroyed.

June 22. Another (the sixth) great fire occurs in San Francisco, destroying hundreds of houses and millions of property.

July 14. Melfi, a city of 10,000 inhabitants, about 100 miles south-east of Naples, is destroyed by a severe shock of an earthquake.

Aug. 3. The expedition under General Lopez against Cuba is unsuccessful, and meets with a terrible disaster. Many of the men are killed in encounters with the Spanish troops. Others are captured and condemned to ten years' labor. A portion of them under Colonel Crittenden's command being taken, are shot in Havana.

Aug. 21. A great riot takes place at New Orleans, which arose out of the Cuban expedition. The office of the Spanish paper, *La Patria*, is destroyed. The cigar shops kept by Spaniards are nearly all demolished. The Spanish consul seeks protection from the authorities, and is placed for safety in the city prison.

Sep. 9. At Hartford, Connecticut, Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet died. He was one of the founders of the Deaf and Dumb Asylum in that city, the first in the United States.

Sep. 11. A riot with loss of life takes place at Christiana, Pa., in consequence of an attempt being made to arrest a fugitive slave. The owner of the slave is killed, and his son mortally wounded. The United States' marshal and his attendants are driven from the ground by armed negroes.

Sep. 14. James Fennimore Cooper, the celebrated American novelist, died at Cooperstown, New York.

Sep. 22. Louis Kossuth and thirty-five of his countrymen are sentenced to death at Pesth, for not appearing after citation.

Sep. 23. The cable telegraph wire between Dover and Calais is this day laid.

Sept. and Oct. Mr. Grinnell's vessels, sent in search of Sir John Franklin, return.

Dec. 2. Louis Napoleon destroys the constitution of the French Republic, by a decree called the *Coup d'Etat*. The Assembly are confined or banished: 40,000 persons in France are incarcerated, and on the 4th of December, 1200 individuals are shot without necessity upon the Boulevards.

Dec. 5. Louis Kossuth arrives at Staten Island from Southampton, England. At New York and many other places he is received with unbounded enthusiasm by the citizens.

Dec. 26. A large portion of the Chinese quarter of Hong Kong is destroyed by fire. Nearly 500 houses are burnt, as also the finest public buildings, and many lives are lost.

1852.

Jan. 22. Louis Napoleon orders the confiscation of the Orleans property by a decree of this date.

March 13. Ninety-five of the Americans who were engaged in the Lopez expedition against Cuba, and were captured and sent to Spain, arrive at New York, having been liberated by the Spanish queen.

June 15. The British queen issues her proclamation against Roman Catholic ecclesiastics wearing the habits of their order, exercising the rites and ceremonies of the Roman Catholic religion in high-ways and places of public resort.

June 29. At Washington, D. C., Henry Clay died, aged 75.

July 28. The steamer Henry Clay, in her passage down the North River, is burned, just below Yonkers. Fifty-six passengers perished by being burned or drowned.

Sept. Louis Napoleon commences his tour through the southern part of France. Upon his return he makes a pompous entrance into Paris.

Sept. 14. Field marshal the Duke of Wellington dies, at the age of 83, at Walmer Castle in Kent. He is succeeded in his dukedom by his son, the marquis of Douro.

Oct. 8. A violent hurricane destroys \$500,000 worth of property in Florida.

Oct. 24. Daniel Webster died at his home in Marshfield, Massachusetts, aged 70.

Oct. 26. A furious storm occurs in Athens, overthrowing one of the columns of the temple of Jupiter Olympus.

Nov. 2. A fire in Sacramento City, California, destroys 2500 buildings.

Nov. 7. The French senate decrees the re-establishment of the empire, subject to the ratification of the people.

Nov. 18. The five powers, England, France, Prussia, Bavaria, and Greece, holding a convention in London, agree that none but a prince of the Greek religion is hereafter to ascend the throne of Greece.

Nov. 21 and 22. The majority of votes given in France at these dates relative to the re-establishment of the empire, is 7,824,189. The whole number of votes and blank ballots cast was 8,110,660.

Dec. 2. Louis Napoleon is publicly proclaimed in Paris emperor of the French, under the name of Napoleon III.

1853.

Jan. 30. The marriage of Napoleon III. and Eugénie de Montijo, Countess de Teba, is celebrated in Paris.

Feb. 6. An insurrection, under the planning of Mazzini, breaks out in Milan. A deadly attack was made upon the soldiery in various parts of the city, but the outbreak is soon suppressed, and severe measures of punishment are adopted by Marshal Radetsky.

Feb. 18. The emperor of Austria, while walking upon the ramparts at Vienna, is attacked by a Hungarian, and receives a severe blow with a knife in the neck. The assassin is seized, and on the 20th is executed.

March 19. Nankin is taken by the rebels, who have for some time past been extending their conquests in China. They massacre on the occasion nearly 20,000 of the Tartar garrison.

March 4. Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, inaugurated president of the United States.

April 1. General Santa Anna arrives at Vera Cruz, having been chosen president of Mexico by a large majority of the states.

April 22. An attempt at insurrection is made at Friburg, Switzerland, by the Jesuit party. It is soon suppressed, but with some loss of life.

May 6. A terrible catastrophe is experienced on the New York and New Haven railroad at Norwalk, Connecticut, in consequence of the drawbridge having been carelessly left open. Several of the cars are precipitated in the water, and forty-five persons are killed, and many others severely injured.

May 9. The city of Schiraz in Persia is completely destroyed by an earthquake. Twelve thousand lives are lost.

July 2. The troops of Russia, under Prince Gortschakoff, cross the Pruth, and invade Turkey, on the Sultan's refusal to submit to the insulting demands of the Czar.

July 8. The expedition which sailed some time before from the United States to open communications with that country, arrives in Japan. On the 14th Commodore Perry delivers to the Imperial Commissioner the letter from the American President.

July 14. The Crystal Palace in New York is opened in the presence of the President of the United States and other persons of distinction.

August and September. The yellow fever makes frightful ravages in New Orleans and in other southern cities. In New Orleans more than 8000 persons died.

Oct. 3. The Sultan of Turkey issues his manifesto, containing the declaration of war against Russia, which is read in all the mosques.

Nov. 4. A battle occurs between the Turks and Russians, with considerable loss to the latter.

Nov. 30. The Russians destroy at Sinope a Turkish squadron, consisting of three frigates, two steamers, and some transports. Five thousand Turks are killed.

1854.

Jan. 5. Two hundred and forty human beings perish in consequence of the foundering of the steamer San Francisco at sea. Many of them were United States troops.

Jan. 6. The Russians are defeated by the Turks near Calafat, with a loss of 2500 men.

Jan. The whole number of Patents issued for the year 1854 is set down at 1900, or more than double the number of the previous year.

March 2. Sixteen workmen in an extensive car factory at Hartford, Ct., are crushed to death or otherwise perished in a building, which was destroyed in consequence of the bursting of a large and new boiler.

March 14. The memorial of 3000 clergymen of different religious denominations in New England, in which they solemnly protest against the passage of the Nebraska Bill, is presented by Senator Everett to the United States Senate.

March 28. War against Russia is formally declared by Great Britain and France to take place on the following 30th of April.

May 31. The President of the United States signs the Kansas Nebraska Bill, which is designed to organize two new territories; it also annuls the Missouri Compromise act of 1820, and is the cause of serious agitation throughout the country.

June 1. The cholera prevails in many places, and between two thousand and three thousand fall victims to it in N. York in the course of the summer and autumn.

June 2. Anthony Burns, a colored man, having been declared by the Commissioner to be a fugitive from labor, is conducted from the Court-house, Boston, Mass., to the revenue cutter Morris, by one hundred and fifty armed citizens, in the employ of the United States marshal, and by a company of marines from the Navy Yard, and of United States troops from Fort Independence, with a nine pound field piece, whom the marshal had called out for his assistance. The streets were kept clear by a large body of volunteer militia, called out by the mayor. No serious outbreak occurs, though crowds throng the streets, and hoot, and hiss, and groan, and throw missiles at the military as they are carrying off the prisoner. He is taken in the cutter to Norfolk, and delivered to his alleged master, Mr. Suttle, of Virginia.

June 16. A sortie from Silistria is made by the Turks, which completely defeated the Russians, forcing them to re-cross the Danube.

June 30. The total tonnage of American vessels engaged in foreign fishing and coasting trade for the past financial year, is 5,661,416 tons.

July 7. The Turks defeat the Russians in a combat at Giurgevo, the latter losing 1700 men in killed and wounded.

July 13. The American sloop of war, Cyane, Captain Hollins, bombarded San Juan, in Nicaragua, and a party landing from the vessel, laid the whole place in ashes. The alleged cause of this destruction, was the failure of the authorities to comply with some demand made upon them. Claims have been instituted upon the United States Government, by many individuals, for compensation for damage done to their property.

Aug. 18. The Austrian troops are ordered to enter Wallachia, and commence crossing the frontier at Turnu-Severin.

Aug. 28. A revolution having taken place in Spain, by which a liberal government is established, Donna Maria, the queen's mother, escapes to Portugal and thence goes to Paris. She is indebted to the state 71,000,000 reals.

Sept. 5. A monument is raised at Hartford, Connecticut, in front of the Asylum for the deaf and dumb, to the memory of Thomas H. Gallaudet, who was the principal agent in founding that institution.

Sept. 27. The Arctic, one of the Collins' line of steamers, in a thick fog off the banks of Newfoundland, was run into by the French screw-steamer Vesta, and sunk within a few hours. More than 300 persons, consisting of the passengers and crew of the Arctic, perished in consequence of the accident. Some seventy persons, chiefly of the crew, are known to have been saved in boats.

Oct. 10. Messrs. Buchanan, Soule and Marcy meet at Ostend, to confer as to the course proper to be pursued by the United States Government in regard to the acquisition of Cuba.

Oct. 24. Pierie Soule, minister of the United States to Spain, being on his way from London to Paris, is stopped at Calais, in Spain, the French government being jealous of him, he having been once a French citizen, and known as a red republican. Mr. Soule is at length permitted to pass through France on his way to Spain, but not to remain in the country.

Dec. 19. The ship St. Patrick from Liverpool, with 400 emigrants, went ashore at Barnegat. Vessel and cargo lost, but the crew and passengers saved.

Dec. 20. The police of New York arrested 12 Belgian convicts who had been sent to this country by their government, and measures were taken for sending them back.

Dec. 27. Thomas W. Dorr, whose name is indissolubly connected with the history of Rhode Island, as the hero of the 'rebellion' in 1842, died at Providence.

Dr. Rae, who had been engaged in the search for Sir John Franklin for some time, at length obtained certain information of the fate of these adventurers, from the Esquimaux. The natives had in their possession articles of European manufacture, such as silver spoons, forks, &c., one of which was known to be Sir John's from the engraving of his name.

The year has been distinguished by disastrous events, causing an immense loss of life and property, by railroad accidents and fires in the United States, and by the severe and bloody battles which have taken place in the South-east of Europe between the allied powers of England and France and Russia.

1855.

March 2. Nicholas, Emperor of all the Russias, died at St. Petersburg.

March 14. The new Suspension bridge at Niagara, is first crossed by a locomotive train of cars.

March 30. The election takes place in Kansas for members of the territorial legislature. The polls are invaded and the election carried by "emigrants" from Missouri.

April 9. All the English and French batteries open on Sebastopol; the Russians sustain the shock, with a loss of less than 1000 men.

May 1. An extraordinary eruption at Vesuvius commences and continues for some days.

May 10. Joseph Hiss is expelled from the Massachusetts legislature for misconduct.

May 31. The propeller Arctic and barque Return, leave Brooklyn Navy yard under command of Lieut. Hartstene, U. S. N., in search of Dr. Kane and his companions in the Arctic seas.

June 28. Colonel William Walker, now called General Walker, arrives off San Juan del Sud, in the brig Vesta, and lands his forces, his object being to conquer Nicaragua. At the present time, April 1857, his force is much reduced, and his prospects are uncertain.

Aug. 9. Santa Anna abdicates the presidency of

Mexico, and retires to Carraccas; after a time Comonfort succeeds him.

Aug. 22. Mademoiselle Rachel, the French Actress and her troupe, arrive at New York.

Aug. 25. The yellow fever rages fearfully at Norfolk and Portsmouth, in Virginia. It continued till October, sweeping off one-third of the resident population.

Sept. 5. The allies make a tremendous combined attack on Sebastopol. The Russian defenses, including the trenches, formed a line of 70 miles. The French batteries in the assault, extended four miles, from which the deadly storm of missiles was continued day and night. The whole scene was one of the most terrible, in the history of human warfare. On the 9th, the Russians retired to the northern side of Sebastopol, and the allies took possession of the Malakoff, Redan, and other forts, against which they had contended for a year, with a loss almost unparalleled, in the same space of time.

Sept. 13. Lieut. Hartstene finds Dr. Kane and his companions at the isle of Disco, Greenland, they having left their vessel, the *Advance*, in the ice, May 17th, and arrived at Upper Navick, where they had shipped in the Danish brig, *Maria Anne*, for Denmark. Lieut. Hartstene arrives at New York with Dr. Kane and his crew, Oct. 11th.

Nov. 25. The town of Kars, in Asia Minor, surrenders after a long and destructive siege, to the Russian general, Mouravieff.

Nov. The parliamentary grant of £5000 for the discovery of a North-west passage to the Pacific, is awarded to the officers of her majesty's ship Investigator, Capt. McClure, who had made this discovery by passing through Behring's Straits, and going eastward till they reached the points attained by Capt. Perry and others.

Nov. Robert Schuyler, of New York, who had defrauded the New Haven Railroad Company of a million of dollars, dies at his residence, near Genoa, in Italy, where he had been living, unknown to his family.

Dec. 23. The British Ship, *Resolute*, abandoned in the Arctic seas by her officers and crew, is brought into New London by Capt. Buddington, of the *George Henry*, a whaler.

1856.

Jan. 23. The Collins steamer, *Pacific*, Capt. Eldredge, leaves Liverpool, and is not again heard of. She is supposed to have been lost by coming in contact with ice.

Feb. 2. Nathaniel P. Banks, Jr., is elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, at Washington, after a contest of nine weeks.

Feb. 4. The nomination of George M. Dallas, minister to England, is confirmed by the Senate.

Feb. 25. The National American Convention assembled at Philadelphia, nominates Millard Fillmore as President of the United States, and A. J. Donelson as Vice President.

Feb. 25. All the plenipotentiaries to the peace Congress, assemble at Paris; Count Walewski presides. An armistice till March 31st is signed. A treaty was agreed upon March 30th, and having been ratified by the several governments, went into operation April 27th.

March 16. An heir is born to Louis Napoleon; he is named king of Algeria.

April 3. President Comonfort returns in triumph, to the city of Mexico, having suppressed the rebellion.

April 23. Mr. Buchanan arrives at New York, from London, via Paris.

May 8. P. T. Herliert, a member of Congress from California, kills an Irish waiter in Willard's Hotel, in an affray.

May 22. Charles Sumner, senator from Massachusetts, is violently assaulted in the Senate Chamber by Preston S. Brooks, member of the House from South Carolina; Sumner being pinioned by his desk, is struck down by heavy blows of a gutta serena cane. Brooks is attended by L. M. Keitt, of South Carolina, also a member of Congress. The subject undergoes

investigation in the House. Brooks and Keitt admit that the attack was premeditated. Both are censured by votes of the House, whereupon they resign, but are both re-elected almost unanimously. Brooks is greatly complimented by his friends in South Carolina, but is generally condemned. He died, suddenly of croup, at Washington, in Feb. 1857. Mr. Sumner was unable to resume his seat in the Senate, until Feb. 9th, 1857.

June 2. The Democratic Convention, at Cincinnati, nominates James Buchanan for President, and John C. Breckenridge for Vice President.

June 18. A convention of delegates, opposed to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and to the administration of Mr. Pierce, generally, assembled at Philadelphia, and nominated J. C. Fremont for President, and W. L. Dayton for Vice President.

Aug. 21. The famous Charter Oak, at Hartford, is blown down in a storm.

Aug. 29. A grand meeting of welcome and congratulation to Preston S. Brooks, for his attack on Sumner, is held at Columbia, S. C. The mayor gives him a cane, and other testimonials of approbation are offered.

Sept. 17. The schooner, *Dean Richmond*, from Chicago, via Montreal, arrives at Liverpool, after a passage of 60 days.

Nov. 5. In the general election, James Buchanan was elected President, and J. C. Breckenridge Vice President. Mr. Fillmore only carried the state of Maryland. Fremont had large majorities in all the free states, except New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Indiana and California.

Dec. A difficulty occurred between the British and Chinese, at Canton, in consequence of which the former destroyed some of the Chinese forts, and the latter burnt the factories or establishments of the foreign residents.

Dec. 26. The "Barrier forts" fired upon the American ship *Portsmouth*; the American squadron rallied and destroyed these forts.

China, since 1851, has been agitated by a rebellion, headed by Tai-Ping-Wang, who seems to be a chief of talent, with real or pretended religious fanaticism, but whose ostensible aim is to overturn the reigning Tartar dynasty, and to establish a native government in its place. He has his head quarters at Nankin, which city he has now held for two years. The rebels have possession also, of several important places in the North, and are supposed to threaten the destruction of the present government.

Dec. The government of the United States, having purchased the British Bark, *Resolute*, found by Capt. Buddington, and ordered her to be refitted, and sent to England as a present to the government, under Capt. Hartstene, he and his crew are received with enthusiastic ardor at Portsmouth.

1857.

March. Congress pass a new tariff act reducing the duties on spirits, sugar, glass, woollens, books, raw hides, &c.

March. Congress pass an act to encourage a scheme for a magnetic telegraph across the Atlantic, from Newfoundland to Ireland. The British government have passed a similar enactment.

March 4. James Buchanan inaugurated as President of the United States.

The United States Court at Washington pronounce an opinion, which causes great excitement, to the effect that a colored man cannot be a citizen of the United States; that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional; that slaves are recognized as property by the Constitution, and that slave-holders may be protected in holding their slaves in the free states, if they are there transiently and not for permanent residence.

March. Lord Napier arrives at New York, as minister from Great Britain to the United States, he being the successor of Mr. Crampton who had been dismissed by our government.

WONDERS OF HALF A CENTURY.

WE close our record of ten thousand facts, the memorabilia of the last fifty years, with a few remarks which are obvious in the rapid retrospect of the busy half century which is just passing from us.

First, in glancing at the political horizon in our own country, we can count fifty years of comparative peace and solid prosperity. And, though the country has been engaged in wars, yet but one of these has for a moment interrupted the steady march of our national greatness. The war of 1812, with England, ruined the external commerce of the country, for a while, and carried misery to many a hearthstone. But it developed our internal resources, and originated a naval power which has made us respectable and formidable upon the seas. The war with the Barbary States, the Indian wars of the west, the Creek war, the Black Hawk war, the Florida war, and the Mexican war, were hardly known to most of our people but through the newspapers.

We have now, for half a century, presented the spectacle of a nation respected without an immense military establishment, and capable, without a large standing army, of calling into play, at once, the terrible energies of war, on a scale commensurate with any force that any nation can bring against us. Without endangering our institutions, thus far, our nation has opened its fraternal arms to the oppressed of all the family of man. We have not only become established ourselves, but have lived to see Europe adopting the republican principles our fathers matured. Our population has increased sixfold; our territory has been nearly trebled in extent; our wealth, of all kinds, has increased almost beyond the powers of calculation to estimate; and a career is opening upon the American nation, for the next fifty years, as brilliant and full of hope as ever before dawned upon any nation.

In comparing our continent, in 1850, with its condition in 1800, we may well be proud and grateful to observe what triumphs American labor, skill, and capital have effected in the interval. Was there ever a nation, that, in fifty years, felled such a world of forest, or opened to culture such a breadth of soil; wove such an interminable length of broad and good roads, over such a continent of wood, mountain, and morass; built so many cities, towns, and villages,—mills, factories, docks, ware-houses, churches, court-houses, almshouses, hospitals, custom-houses,—and connected them together, physically and intellectually, by such a complicated net-work of iron railroads and telegraphic wires?

Our cities have swollen, in population, from hundreds to tens of thousands and hundreds of thousands. Thousands of towns, with all the comforts and blessings of the highest civilization, now occupy sunny hills or quiet prairies, or bask upon the banks of laughing streams, where, in 1800, the savage beast contended with savage man in his gloomy lair, or the wild bison fled from his no less wild pursuer, or the eagle soared screaming from his unmolested nest.

In 1800, the Rocky Mountains were unknown; the mighty streams of Oregon, Missouri, and their fellows, rolled through their primeval solitudes, unseen but by the eye of the Creator and of the red man. Now the clank of the steamboat's piston is daily heard upon almost every stream, and thousands crowd the banks to welcome thousands that pour from her luxurious decks. Tens of thousands also tread the solitudes of the Rocky Mountains, on their way to the Pacific, 2000 miles, with less fear and fatigue than did the little band of pilgrims which, two centuries ago, went from infant Boston, 200 miles west, to found the colonies of Connecticut. What was, in 1800, a painful journey of months, or a simple impossibility, is now the pleasant trip of a few hours, or the jaunt of a day or a week. The next half century will see Americans visiting China as we now do England; and taking an excursion, by railroad, to the Pacific, as in 1820 we took a jaunt to New York. In fine, the American child, born to-day, opens his eyes upon a theatre for his patriotic or business enterprises which, without losing the shadow of the stars and stripes, is as broad as was the Roman empire in its palmiest days!

But we should take even wider views of the progress of our race during the eventful period which has just elapsed. What has been the result, in a political point of view, of the thousand battles which have stained, and the continual struggles which have signalized, the last fifty years? Besides the peaceful triumphs of discovery and colonization, which have occupied the national energies which war had developed, and which are opening to industry and hope the interior of wretched Africa, by stationing powerful civilizing agencies upon her east, north, south, and west, and which have founded a broad empire in New Holland,—besides the efforts which have carried European civilization into the islands of the Pacific, and China, Turkey, India, and the wilds of Tartary and Siberia,—besides the empires, founded on free principles, which have sprung from the bloody contests of South America,—besides all these glorious results, the close of the half century finds yet nobler things accomplished or accomplishing in Europe.

In that focus of the intelligence and power of our race, *constitutional liberty*, which, in the early part of the century, was crushed in the serpent folds of military despotism, or trodden down by a Holy Alliance of kings, is now diffused over all

her nations except Russia and Turkey. The rights of the people are at this moment enshrined, more or less safely, in written constitutions, in Austria, the stronghold of legitimacy; in voluptuous Naples and Venice, where the last spark of liberty seemed extinguished; in Florence, the beautiful queen of the fine arts; in Rome, the central seat of spiritual and temporal despotism; in Prussia, whose subjects have been so long dragged by arbitrary military regulations; in Lombardy, Sardinia, and all the petty German States; in Bavaria, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Portugal, Spain, and, finally, in France, the great propagandist of European liberty!

May we not hope that the next half century will confederate these nations, after the example of our Union, into a great federal brotherhood of independent sovereignties, not for the few, but for the greatest happiness of the greatest number? May we not hope that, instead of the precarious "balance of power," upheld by the law of force, requiring each frontier to be bristled with bayonets, and absorbing most of the hard-wrung taxes to pay an unproductive soldiery, a confederation of republics in Europe will find a truer balance of power based on the common interest of the masses,—and this both peaceful and permanent?

A glance at the scientific aspect of the times shows us that the nineteenth century has been an age of scientific wonders, an age thus far distinguished above all ages for progress in all those sciences and arts which tend to mold nature and her powers to the use of man,—for all those appliances of mind to matter which bend its stubborn inertia, and direct its omnipotent energies to the promotion of the physical comfort and general improvement of our race. Franklin, who contributed more than any other man to give this practical bearing to science, used to wish, toward the close of his useful life, that he could, after a fifty years' absence in the other world, return and see how matters went on at the period in which we now live. He wished to see the fruit of the seeds that were planting all around him. We are gathering now the fruit he had hoped for then, and we may also look beyond us to a period of fifty years to come, with equal longings to realize anticipations for the future more glowing than the sober-minded Franklin dared to imagine.

Steam navigation, canals, macadamized roads, railroads, electric telegraphs,—balloon steaming, may we not soon add?—have their entire history within the nineteenth century. To it also belongs, besides many other discoveries and inventions, those of Etherization, Animal Magnetism, Phrenology, Photography, Gun-cotton, Gutta Serena; the preparation of various abundant, but before unknown, essences for food; Homœopathy, Hydropathy; teaching of the blind, deaf and dumb; cure of the insane; association. Guano and poudrette are at hand to save the farmer from the curses of bugs and weeds; steam and electricity relieve the weary muscles of the toiling millions from herculean labors, to send them, after a fair day's work, to comfortable homes, with time and means to cultivate their better natures, and taste the sweets of intellectual and moral recreation. Freed by science from the delays of wind and tide, and a thousand obstacles which beset her path, commerce hastens across the hitherto seas, or the leveled pathways of iron, to pour plenty into every lap. With a hundredth part of the expenditure of time and labor, the peasant, in his cottage-door, shares a thousand fold more comforts now than did the prince upon his throne before these modern triumphs of intellect over matter were achieved.

But it is as an age of *benevolence* that the last half century has been most especially distinguished. The Reformation, and consequent increase of intelligence among the masses, had given a more thorough understanding of the practical principles of the Christian religion to the millions who had hitherto allowed others to do most of their Christianity for them. As a necessary consequence of this increased intelligence, the sympathies of the masses were enlarged. The principles of justice between man and man had been so far developed and settled by an age of trade, that people could trust one another, and associations of private individuals in powerful companies, for great ends, became practicable and common.

Christian sympathy seized this powerful engine of modern times, and swayed association to its holy purposes. Love to mankind, which had burned out uselessly in the solitary breast, now communicated its flame to millions, who united to extend the blessings they themselves enjoyed to the whole suffering family of man. Philanthropic societies of every name,—Bible Societies, Education, Tract, Peace, and Missionary Societies, Geographical, Political, Commercial and Scientific Societies,—in fine, every form of association sprang rapidly into existence, till, in 1850, we find thousands of missionaries employed in their self-denying labors, among the "habitations of cruelty," and vice, and misery, throughout the earth,—tens of millions of Bibles circulated,—scores of millions of tracts distributed,—in fine, the means of knowledge and happiness for all multiplying infinitely on every hand, and a race of true glory commenced by nations which promise developments and results, during another half century, upon which angels may look down with hope, if not with approbation.

